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The Deposition of Henry IV.th

Emperor of Germany.

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UNIVERSAL HISTORY,

ANCIENT AND MODERN;

Serawujee Rajah 1808

FROM

THE EARLIEST RECORDS OF TIME,

TO THE

GENERAL PEACE OF 1802.

IN TWENTY-FIVE VOLUMES.

BY WILLIAM MAVOR, LL.D.

VICAR OF HURLEY IN BERKSHIRE, AND CHAPLAIN TO THE EARL OF DUMFRIES.

Factorum est copia nobis.

. . . .

Res gestæ regumque, ducumque, et tristia bella.

VOL. XVII.

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LONDON:

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AND SOLD BY ALL BOOKSELLERS.

1803.

T. Davison, Whitefriars.

THE

HISTORY

OF THE

EMPIRE OF GERMANY;

AND THE

ELECTORATES

OF

SAXONY, BAVARIA, THE PALATINATE, HANOVER, AND BRUNSWICK WOLFENBUTTEL.

BY WILLIAM MAVOR, LL.D.

VICAR OF HURLEY IN BERKSHIRE, CHAPLAIN TO THE EARL OF DUMFRIES,

AUTHOR OF THE BRITISH NEPOS, &c. &c.

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MODERN HISTORY.

HISTORY OF GERMANY.

CHAP. I.

General Description of Germany, and its History from the Election of Conrade I., to the Accession of Frederic Barbarossa.

GERMANY, properly so called, is situated between the 5th and 19th degrees of east longitude, and between the 45th and 55th degrees of north latitude. It is bounded by Denmark, the German Ocean, and the Baltic, on the north; by Poland, Hungary, and Bohemia, on the east; by Switzerland and the Alps on the south; and by the dominions of France and the Low-countries on the west. Its length is about six hundred miles; and its breadth five hundred and twenty. Its population is said to exceed twenty millions of individuals.

This extensive country was formerly divided into Upper, or Southern, and Lower, or Northern, Germany. At present, it consists of nine great circles: those of Upper Saxony, Lower Saxony, and Westphalia, in the north; of the Upper Rhine, Lower Rhine, and Franconia, in the middle; and Austria, Swabia, and Bavaria, in the south. These are subdivided into several small territories, which are subject to their respective sovereigns, under the titles of princes, counts, and bishops.

The climate of Germany varies considerably according to the improvement of the soil. The most settled and temperate weather, however, is found in the interior, at an equal distance from the Alps and the sea. The face of the country, in many parts, is totally destitute of vegetation; but where agriculture has been introduced, the traveller is charmed with the prospect of abundant fertility. The vegetable productions differ little from those of the adjacent countries; but the Moselle and Rhenish wines are said to possess a peculiar lightness, and to be more efficacious than any medicine in the cure of certain diseases.

Woods or forests are found in every part of this country, consisting of excellent pines, oaks, firs, &c. and containing great numbers of boars, foxes, rabbits, hares, and wild fowl. The horses of Germany are tolerably good; but the sheep and oxen are very inferior to those of England. Great variety of singing birds are bred in the Germanic empire, and sent from thence to all parts of Europe.

Many places in Austria, and other parts of Germany, contain excellent mines of silver, quicksilver, copper, iron, tin, lead, nitre, sulphur, and vitriol. Amethysts, carbuncles, sapphires, rubies, agates, and other precious stones, are found in Bavaria, Silesia, and Lower Saxony; and the districts of Liege and Tyrol are enriched with quarries of curious marble, red-lead, alum, and bitumen.

The mineral springs of Spa, Seltzer, Pyrmont, and Aix-la-Chapelle, are said to possess great medicinal virtues, as well as those of Wisbaden, Schwalbach, Embs, and Wildungen. It is affirmed that the waters of Wildungen will intoxicate as soon as wine; and those of Aix-la-Chapelle are so extremely

tremely hot, that it is necessary to let them cool ten or twelve hours before using them.

The principal rivers of Germany are the Danube, Rhine, Elbe, Weser, Oder, and Moselle. The Danube received its name from the rapidity of its current, and may justly be classed among the first rivers of Europe. Its course, exclusive of turnings and windings, is computed at upward of sixteen hundred miles; its breadth, from Vienna to Belgrade in Hungary, is sufficient to admit of a naval engagement between ships of war; and its utility in facilitating the commerce of the countries through which it passes is almost inconceivable. The most remarkable lakes in this country are those of Bregentz and Constance, with the Chiem-see in Bavaria, and the Zirnitzer-see in the duchy of Carniola. Many parts of Germany contain large bodies of standing water, which contaminate the air with noxious vapours, afflicting the neighbouring peasants with many disorders.

The mountains most worthy of attention are the Alps, which form a natural boundary on the side of Italy, and those which divide Saxony, Bavaria, and Moravia, from Bohemia. Several other mountainous tracts, however, are found in different parts of the empire.

The Germans are, in their persons, tall, fair, and well formed; and many of their ladies are blest with elegant shapes, and attractive features. Both sexes are passionately fond of rich dresses, and lace and jewels are worn in great profusion. The apparel of some of the wives and daughters of the burghers is indeed truly grotesque and fantastic; but in this respect they are gradually reforming, and it is probable that they

will soon adopt the more elegant fashions of France and England. The lower classes, consisting of peasants, labourers, &c. dress, as in other parts of Europe, according to their employments or circumstances.

Industry, frankness, and perseverance, are the leading features in the character of this nation, particularly the mechanical part of it: and though the higher orders are ridiculously fond of titles, pomp, and pretensions to a splendid ancestry, they are universally famed for honour and integrity; and a sharper, in other countries, most effectually ensures himself credit by assuming the name and manners of a German.

Some writers have accused the Germans of intemperance, and want of animation; but, though the first charge may be tolerably well founded, it it is certain that, when commanded by able generals, they have acquired a considerable degree of military renown.

The diversions of the Germans are much the same as those of the English; viz. cards, dice, billiards, dancing, fencing, hunting, bull-baiting, &c. In winter, however, when the branches of the Danube are frozen over, and the ground is covered with snow, the inhabitants of Vienna enjoy an amusement which is totally unknown to us. The ladies, magnificently dressed in velvet and furs, seat themselves in sledges of different shapes, such as griffins, swans, tigers, and scallop-shells, which are drawn by one horse, or stag, decorated with a profusion of feathers, bells and ribands. As this recreation is generally taken in the night, servants ride before with lighted torches, and a gentleman stands on the sledge behind, in order to guide it.

Germany being, as we have observed, divided into many small territories, the religion of the country is various; some states adopting the doctrines of Calvin and Luther, others retaining the superstitions of popery, and others being overrun with sectaries. The archbishoprics are those of Mentz, Cologne, Saltzburg, Triers, and Vienna, which have among them twenty-five suffragans. There are also thirty-six universities, and eight public libraries, besides a vast number of gymnasia, Latin schools, and academies of arts and sciences.

The Teutonic part of the German tongue, called High Dutch, is an original language, and has no affinity with the Celtic. This is the primitive tongue of the empire, but it varies considerably in its dialect in different provinces. French and Latin are also spoken in Germany, and are the most useful languages to a traveller who is unacquainted with High Dutch.

A general taste for reading prevails in all the protestant states of this empire, and printing is encouraged here more than in any other nation; for almost every man of letters is an author, and some thousands of theses and disputations are annually published. Many of the Germans, indeed, have distinguished themselves in various branches of science and literature; and since the year 1730 they have gradually divested themselves of that heavy and pedantic mode of writing which formerly rendered many of their productions dull and uninteresting.

The art of printing, though first invented in Holland, was soon afterward greatly improved in Germany, and the inhabitants of this country are generally allowed to have been the inventors

of gunpowder and cannon. They are also said to have first discovered the arts of engraving, etching, and mezzotinto; and they can boast some excellent painters, architects, sculptors, and musicians.

The electorate of Saxony is naturally one of the richest countries in Germany, and is said to contain two hundred and ten walled towns, sixty-one market towns, and a prodigious number of villages. The revenue, however, is so moderate, when compared with the extraordinary richness of the soil, that its princes seem to have been the most patriotic of any in the empire.

Dresden, the metropolis of the elector of Saxony, is beautifully situated on both sides of the Elbe, and has been frequently noticed by travellers, on account of its fortifications, palaces, churches, eleemosynary establishments, and other public buildings. Its inhabitants are computed at 110,000 individuals, and are universally famed for their skill in painting, statuary, enameling, and carving. They also carry on a very considerable trade in mirrors, bells, and cannon.

Leipsic, at the distance of forty-six miles from Dresden, is seated in a fertile plain near the banks of the Pleisse, and contains about 40,000 inhabitants. The streets are clean, commodious, and well lighted; and the suburbs are rendered peculiarly pleasant by a fine walk of lime-trees, and several handsome gardens. Leipsic contains an elegant exchange, one hundred and ninety-two manufactories, a celebrated university, seven protestant churches, and a Romish chapel.

Berlin, the capital of his Prussian majesty's dominions, lies on the river Spree, and contains twenty-six churches, a beautiful opera-house, a fine

fine arsenal, and several libraries, besides the royal palace, and many other superb edifices. The population of this city is very considerable, and the inhabitants are celebrated for their manufactories of tapestry, mirrors, and gold and silver lace.

Hanover, the capital of the electorate of that name, is a well-built and agreeable city on the river Leine, containing about twelve hundred houses. It carries on some brisk manufactures; and is rendered extremely pleasant by its contiguity to the elegant palace and gardens of Herenhausen. The electorate of Hanover includes fifty-eight cities, sixty market towns, and a great number of villages. The secularised bishopric of Osnaburg, lying between the rivers Ems and Weser, produces an annual revenue of about 30,000*l*.

Lubec, an imperial city, situated between the rivers Trave and Wacknis in Lower Saxony, was first declared free in the year 1209, and has since that period become wealthy and elegant, notwithstanding the calamities it has suffered from fire, and from the violent attack of enemies. Its chief commerce is with the cities of the Baltic, and with the northern countries, by means of its port at the mouth of the Trave. Among its principal privileges is that of presenting, alternately with the circle of Saxony, an assessor for the imperial chamber, and of judging in the last resort in questions of property not exceeding the amount of 500 florins.

Frankfort on the Maine is situated in a fertile and delightful part of the circle of Upper Rhine, and is divided by the river into two parts, which are distinguished by the names of Frankfort and Saxenhausen. The former of these is subdivided into

into twelve wards, and the latter into two; and both are supposed to contain about three thousand houses. The streets are generally narrow, and the houses are mostly built of timber and plaster, and roofed with slate; though there are some edifices of a kind of red marble, which are exceedingly magnificent. This is the usual place of the coronation of the king of the Romans; and it possesses the rights and immunities of an imperial city.

Cologne, in the circle of Lower Rhine, received all the privileges which it now enjoys from the emperor Otho III.; and after an obstinate contest with their archbishops, the inhabitants fully established their liberty in the year 1297. This was the birth-place of Agrippina, daughter of Germanicus, and mother of Nero.

Worms, a city of great antiquity in the same circle, was known to the Romans by the name of Borbetomagus. The cathedral churches, together with some monasteries, are possessed by Roman-catholics; but the magistrates, and most of the citizens, adhere to the tenets of the Confession of Augsburg. The elector-palatine has the right of protection over this city; which, however, is subject to its own bishop.

Nuremberg, or Norimberg, seems to have derived its name from the hill upon which the castle is built. The river Regnits, which flows through it, and the Schwarzack and Rednits, which run by its walls, furnish the inhabitants with the means of making various stuffs, dyes, &c. which are exported to great advantage. Here are preserved, as precious relics, the crown, sceptre, gloves, buskins, and imperial mantle, of Charlemagne; which were also worn by the emperor Leopold, when he went to

receive

receive homage of the citizens, subsequent to his election. Nuremberg is also famous on account of its antiquity, grandeur, and excellent fortifications.

Vienna, in the circle of Austria, is a strong and magnificent city; and, being the residence of the emperor, is accounted the capital of Germany. Here are an excellent university, a bank, and a vast number of palaces, churches, public libraries, and academies. The houses are generally of stone, five or six stories high, containing always a number of different families, and have flat roofs; but all the windows are strongly grated with iron bars, and most of the streets, except those in the suburbs, are narrow and dirty. A very singular prerogative of the sovereign over this city is, that the second floor of every house belongs to him, and must be assigned to whoever he thinks proper: hence there is no part of the empire where lodgings let at so exorbitant a rate as in Vienna. The encouragement given by the emperors has rendered this city the resort of foreigners; and the present population, including the suburbs, is computed at three hundred thousand individuals.

Augsburg, or the City of Augustus, is situated near the river Lech, in the circle of Swabia, and is embellished with several beautiful fountains and sumptuous edifices. The town-house is a magnificent structure, where Ferdinand IV. was elected king of the Romans, the ceremony having been performed on the 3d of May, 1653, in the church of the abbey of St. Ulric. The Lutheran confession of faith is called the Confession of Augsburg, from having been first composed and published in this city. The greatest part of the citizens are merchants

merchants and artificers, and their manufactures are so universally esteemed that they are exported to all parts of the world.

Ulm, so called from the Latin word *ulmus*, upon account of the great number of elms growing in its neighbourhood, is a small but opulent city, situated upon the Danube, and rendered peculiarly pleasant by a great number of fountains with which its streets are embellished. Besides many other privileges, it is entrusted with the archives of all the other imperial cities of Swabia; its decisions, in causes to the amount of six hundred florins, are without appeal to the imperial chamber; its inhabitants cannot be cited to foreign tribunals; and the empire can neither sell, mortgage, nor alienate, any part of its territory.

Breslau, the principal city of Silesia, which formerly belonged to the crown of Bohemia, is embellished with many noble edifices, and contains several large manufactories. The magistrates adhere to the doctrines of Luther; but all denominations of Christians, and even Jews, are tolerated in the exercise of their religions. The revenue of this place is said to bring nearly a million sterling into the coffers of his Prussian majesty; but this sum is probably exaggerated, though it must certainly be acknowledged that its trade is greatly augmented since Silesia fell under the dominion of Prussia.

Among the natural curiosities of Germany must be enumerated a cave near Blackenburg, in Harty Forest, of which no person has ever found the end, though some are said to have penetrated into it to the distance of twenty miles; another cave near Hamelen, where one hundred and thirty children

are

are said to have been swallowed up about five hundred and nineteen years ago; and two rocks in the vicinity of Blackenburg, representing two monks in their religious habits. The vast Gothic palaces, cathedrals, castles, and town-houses, of this country are extremely curious, and impress an attentive spectator with a striking idea of rude magnificence.

The imperial library at Vienna claims a distinguished place under the head of artificial curiosities. It contains upward of eighty thousand volumes, among which are many ancient and valuable Hebrew, Syriac, Arabic, Turkish, Armenian, Coptic, and Chinese manuscripts, besides a noble collection of coins, medals, and other rare articles. The famous tun at Heidelberg holds eight hundred hogsheads, and is generally kept full of Rhenish wine; and, indeed, every part of Germany abounds with objects highly interesting to a stranger.

From its situation in the heart of Europe, and the convenience of its numerous rivers, Germany has acquired an extensive and rapidly improving commerce. Corn, butter, cheese, honey, tobacco, wax, wines, horses, timber, wool, toys, turnery-ware, mirrors, Prussian blue, and printers'-ink, are numbered among their most considerable exports. The German velvets, silks, stuffs, and linens, are also brought to great perfection; and the porcelain of Saxony is universally known and admired.

The constitution of Germany is of so intricate a nature, that many learned civilians have doubted whether it should be called monarchical or aristocratical. Upon mature deliberation, however, they

they have generally pronounced it a very limited monarchy: for notwithstanding there are no fewer than about three hundred German princes who are arbitrary with respect to the government of their own territories, yet they all form one collective body, which recognises the emperor as its lawful head. The supreme power in Germany is in the Diet, which consists of the emperor or his commissary, the electoral college, the college of princes, and the college of imperial towns.

Under the race of Charlemagne, the imperial dignity was hereditary; but it afterwards became elective, and all the German princes, nobles, and deputies of cities, enjoyed the privilege of voting. Some alterations were made in the mode of election in the reign of the emperor Henry V.; and about the year 1239 the number of electors was reduced to seven. Subsequently to that period, two more have been added, so that the election of the emperor is now vested in nine persons; viz. the archbishop of Mentz, who is also high-chancellor of the empire; the archbishop of Triers, nominally high-chancellor of France and Arelat; the archbishop of Cologne, who possesses a similar title with regard to Italy; the king of Bohemia, cup-bearer; the elector of Bavaria, grand-sewer, or officer who serves out the feasts; the elector of Saxony, great-marshal of the empire; the elector of Brandenburg (now king of Prussia), who is great-chamberlain; the elector-palatine, great-steward; and the elector of Hanover (king of Great Britain), who claims the honorary post of arch-treasurer. It is customary for the emperor to ask the advice of these members previously to his convening a diet; and during a vacancy of the

imperial

imperial throne, the electors of Saxony and Bavaria have jurisdictions, one over the northern, and the other over the southern, circles of the empire.

The chief of the ecclesiastical princes, besides the ecclesiastical electors already mentioned, are the archbishop of Saltzburg, the bishops of Liege, Spire, Munster, Worms, Strasburg, Wurtzburg, Bamberg, Paderborn, and Osnaburg. There are likewise many abbots and abbesses, who are chosen by their respective chapters, and enjoy very considerable jurisdictions. Of the secular princes, the most powerful are the landgrave of Hesse; the dukes of Brunswick, Wolfenbuttle, Mecklenburg, Wurtemburg, and Saxe-Gotha; the marquisses of Culmbach and Baden; and the princes of Nassau, Anhalt, and Furstenburg. The free cities also are sovereign states; and those which are imperial, or compose part of the diet, are authorised to bear the imperial eagle in their coats of arms.

All the great causes of the empire, arising between its respective members, are determined in the imperial chamber, which is held at Wetzlar, or in the Aulic council at Vienna. The first of these supreme courts consists of fifty judges, four of whom, together with the president, are appointed by the emperor, nine are chosen by the electors, and the remainder by the other princes and states of Germany. The Aulic council consists of a president, a vice-chancellor, a vice-president, a certain number of counsellors, and other officers; but the emperor is, in fact, master of the whole. Both this and the imperial court are always guided in their proceedings by the Golden Bull, the pacification of Passau, and the civil law

 of

of the empire. Exclusive of these courts of justice, each of the nine circles has a director, who superintends the preservation of peace and good order. These directors are generally as follow: for Upper Saxony, the elector of Saxony; for Lower Saxony, the elector of Hanover or Brandenburg; for Westphalia, the bishop of Munster, or duke of Newburg; for the circle of the Upper Rhine, the elector-palatine, or the bishop of Worms; for that of the Lower Rhine, the archbishop of Mentz; for Franconia, the marquis of Culmbach, or the bishop of Bamberg; for Austria, the archduke of Austria, his imperial majesty; for Bavaria, the elector of Bavaria, or the archbishop of Saltzburg; and for Swabia, the bishop of Constance, or the duke of Wurtemburg.

The revenue of the emperor, annexed to the imperial dignity, arises from some inconsiderable fiefs in the Black Forest, and does not exceed 6000*l.* sterling; but his Austrian revenues are immense, and have been computed to amount to 7,000,000*l.* sterling. From the magnificence of many of the German courts, a foreigner readily forms very high notions of the incomes of the sovereign princes; but this results entirely from the scarcity of money in that country, and the consequent cheapness of manufactures and provisions.

With respect to the military strength of Germany, it appears, upon a moderate computation, that the secular princes can bring to the field 379,000 men, and the ecclesiastical 74,000; of which the emperor, as head of the house of Austria, is supposed to raise 90,000. The elector of Mentz

Mentz is said to keep a matriculation-book, containing the assessment of men and money which every prince and state must advance when the imperial army takes the field: but these assessments are subject to great fluctuation.

The emperor of Germany, considered as successor to the emperors of Rome, has long been admitted to a precedency, on all public occasions, among the powers of Europe; and the titles of principalities, dukedoms, baronies, &c. with which he is vested as archduke of Austria, are too numerous to admit of recapitulation. The arms of the Germanic empire are a black eagle with two heads and expanded wings, hovering in a field of gold. Over the heads of the eagle is the imperial diadem, and on its breast is an escutcheon quarterly of eight, for Hungary, Naples, Jerusalem, Anjou, Arragon, Brabant, Barr, and Guelders. The emperors of Germany, as well as the kings of Spain, confer the order of the Golden Fleece, which is said to have descended from the house of Burgundy. The other orders of knighthood now subsisting in Germany are those of the Red Eagle, the Golden Lion, the Noble Passion, the Chace, the Death's Head, Merit, Sincerity, the Teutonic order, the order of St. Hubert, of St. George, and of St. Theresa.

Among the chief prerogatives of the emperor are those of convoking and dismissing the diet; filling up the first dignity in the abbeys, cathedrals, or collegiate churches, that shall happen to fall vacant after his coronation; bestowing the great fiefs of the empire; granting pardons and remissions; and instituting or confirming universities and other seminaries of education. He subjects himself,

 however,

however, to several restrictions, by a capitulation made at the time of his election, by the terms of which he is obliged to consult the electors and all the sovereign states in matters of the last importance.

The king of the Romans is chosen by the electors during the emperor's life, to conduct the affairs of state in the emperor's absence, as vicar-general of the empire, and to succeed him on the imperial throne without any fresh election or confirmation. He possesses many privileges in common with the emperor; as those of presiding at the diets, of putting rebels to the ban of the empire, of mitigating penalties, &c. But he acknowledges the emperor as his superior; he is crowned with an open, not an imperial, crown; the eagle which he bears in his arms has only one head; and in the instrument which he signs at his election, it is expressly stipulated that he shall possess no independent authority or administration during the life of the emperor.

Germany seems to have been divided into a number of independent principalities while the Roman empire was in its zenith of glory and vigor; but the inhabitants frequently united in the defence of their common liberty, and many sanguinary conflicts established their reputation for bravery before they sunk under the power of their formidable and politic invaders. At length, however, their country was reduced to the state of a provincial subjection to the masters of the world; and upon the decline of the western empire, it became a prey to the Franks, and a considerable part of it remained under the dominion of earls and marquisses of that nation, till Charle-

magne

magne extended his military power and civil authority over the whole of the empire.

The posterity of Charlemagne inherited the country till the demise of Lewis IV., when the Carlovingian line became extinct, the empire was wholly detached from France, and the imperial dignity became elective. At this period, therefore, it seems proper to commence the historical narration, as the preceding affairs are closely interwoven with those of France, and must of necessity be noticed in the history of that nation.

The German grandees, whose consent had usually been asked at the elevation of their princes even during the hereditary succession, assembled at Worms upon the death of Lewis IV., and offered the imperial diadem to Otho duke of Saxony; but being unwilling to accept a dignity which his advanced age might render irksome or inconvenient to him, he requested that they would apply their invitation to Conrade duke of Franconia, whom he knew to be a prince of equal merit and capacity.

Upon this recommendation Conrade was unanimously elected to fill the vacant throne; A. D. 912. and he immediately took such precautions as were indispensably necessary to establish and support his authority. Understanding that his presence was necessary to quell some discontents in Lorrain, he marched thither with great expedition, and, by several popular acts, conciliated the esteem and affection of the natives. He then persuaded the duke of Saxony, who had assembled a powerful army, to suspend his intended hostilities; and crushed three alarming rebellions, which were successively raised against him. The

 Hungarians,

Hungarians, however, made a dreadful irruption into his dominions, and, after marking their progress with fire and sword, compelled him to purchase a peace upon very disadvantageous terms: but, notwithstanding all the exertions of his enemies, he retained the sceptre, and conducted the affairs of the empire with great prudence till the time of his death.

When Conrade perceived his approaching dissolution he convened the princes and states of the empire, and seriously exhorted them to raise Henry duke of Saxony, and son of Otho, to the imperial throne; although that nobleman had insulted him by open rebellion, and had made an attempt upon his life by means of a poisoned bracelet. Having thus sacrificed his resentment to the public interest, and sent the crown, sceptre, and the other regalia, to his intended successor, Conrade expired, after an active and respectable reign of seven years.

A. D. 919. Early in the ensuing year, the dukes of Bavaria, Franconia, and Swabia, with all the other states of Germany, assembled at Fritzlar, and bestowed the imperial dignity upon Henry duke of Saxony, whom historians have distinguished by the epithet of the Fowler, on account of his predilection for that amusement.

This prince had no sooner assumed the reins of government, than he prudently laboured to promote a general reconciliation among the princes of the empire. His exertions for this purpose were crowned with complete success: they unanimously resolved to support his interests, and acted with such extraordinary gallantry in his defence, that a numerous army of Hungarian invaders were repulsed with prodigious slaughter; the Vandals,

who

who had made an inroad into the empire, were almost exterminated, on the coast of the Baltic; and the Dalmatians, Bohemians, Abotrites, and Sclavonians, were compelled to submit to their imperial opponents. During these rapid successes Henry repulsed Charles the Simple from the banks of the Rhine, and, after some conferences, the two princes concluded the treaty called Pactum Bonnese, which constitutes a famous epoch in history. An assembly, composed of several French and German prelates, was held soon afterward at Coblentz, where this treaty was confirmed; and, among other regulations, it was enacted that no layman should receive tythes, which were entirely ecclesiastic, and that no marriage should be solemnised between relations within the sixth degree of consanguinity.

After some skirmishes with Raoul duke of Burgundy, and Geselbert of Lorrain, Henry turned his attention to the regulation of his police, and the improvement of his dominions. Accordingly he published a general amnesty in favor of thieves and banditti in his dominions, with which description of men every part of the continent at that time abounded, and actually persuaded them to enlist in the service of their country. He also caused all his cities to be well garrisoned, and took admirable precautions for the establishment and regular supply of the magazines, that the inhabitants might never be distressed by a scarcity of provisions.

Nor were the exertions of this prince confined to the discharge of his imperial duties; but his zeal induced him to undertake the propagation of the Christian faith, and, after A. D. 927.

after appointing the first bishop in Holstein to declare the glad tidings of the gospel to the recently subdued Vandals, he had the satisfaction to witness the conversion of the king of the Abotrites, whose territories bordered upon Bulgaria, in that part of Dacia contiguous to the Danube.

The invasion of Bohemia by a Polish army, called Henry to the assistance of Winceslaus; but whilst he was engaged in appeasing the troubles of that state, the Sclaves, Wilses, and other barbarians, made a sudden irruption into Saxony, ravaged the whole province of Lunenburg, and made themselves masters of the capital, which they literally covered with blood. After some time, however, Henry ordered two of his bravest generals to march against the invaders; and a battle ensued, in which the imperial arms proved completely victorious.

Having repulsed a fresh invasion of the Hungarians, restored the blessings of tranquillity to his subjects, and made some necessary regulations in his empire, Henry received a pressing invitation into Italy, and the promise of receiving the holy unction from the hands of the sovereign pontiff. This induced him to undertake that journey: but, being seized with an apoplexy on the road, he was compelled to return to Mansleben, where, with the consent of the states, he settled the succession on his son Otho, and expired soon after, in the sixtieth year of his age and the seventeenth of his reign. It has been asserted by very respectable historians that he was one of the ablest statesmen of his time, and that none of his contemporaries surpassed him either in mental abilities or personal accomplishments.

Pursuant

Pursuant to the request of his deceased father, Otho was elected emperor at Aix-la-Chapelle. The ecclesiastical and secular princes, having taken the customary oath of allegiance, conducted him to the great church, where he was met by the archbishop of Mentz and the diocesan, in their pontificals, assisted by other bishops and clergymen who saluted him with the usual ceremonies. On his advancing into the church, the prelate addressed the congregation to this effect:—"I present to you Otho, chosen of God, formerly nominated to the empire by his revered father, and now elected into that supreme station by the princes here assembled. If this election be agreeable to you hold up your hands in token of approbation." This address was received with unbounded applause; and Otho was conducted to the high altar. The archbishop then girded on the emperor's sword, saying—"Receive this sword, and use it against the enemies of Jesus Christ; and employ the power of the empire, which God hath put into your hands, to preserve and confirm the welfare of the church." Then, putting on the imperial mantle, "Remember," continued he, "with what fidelity and fortitude you are obliged to maintain peace and tranquillity to the end of your life." Lastly, presenting the mace and sceptre, he added, "Warned by these emblems, inflict no other than paternal chastisement upon your subjects; extend your mercy to the ministers of God, to the widow and the orphan; and let the balm of your pity never cease to flow, that with your diadem in this life you may acquire an unfading one in that which is to come." After this solemn exhortation, A. D. 936.

exhortation, Otho received the holy unction and the imperial crown from the hands of the archbishop; and on his return to the palace a magnificent feast was served up, which terminated the whole ceremony.

The commencement of Otho's reign was marked by profound tranquillity; but an irruption of the Hungarians, some successes of the Bohemians under their duke Boleslaus, and a revolt in the province of Bavaria, soon troubled the emperor, and called his army into action. After some time, however, the invaders were defeated with prodigious slaughter; Boleslaus was compelled to submit to his powerful opponents; and Bavaria was in the end reduced to obedience. A defection of the inhabitants of Lorrain was also happily terminated; and the emperor's brother Henry, who, at the instigation of evil counsellors, had formed a powerful conspiracy, returned to a sense of duty, and was received with a free pardon.

After erecting the see of Triers into a principality, and making some necessary regulations in the police of his dominions, the emperor marched with a body of troops into France, in order to support Lewis against his formidable enemy Hugh the Great. Upon this occasion he made some noble exertions, and acquired much military renown: but his army suffered severely from the united scourges of disease and famine; and he was, at length, compelled to return into Saxony, without rendering any essential service to his allies. Some time after his return, he received such a dangerous fall from his horse that his life was despaired of, and he convened an assembly of his principal nobles in order to secure the succession

to

to his son Ludolphus; but the strength of his constitution overcame his malady, and his nomination of the prince was set aside.

Having made a successful expedition against the Danes, and employed his mediation in terminating the troubles of France, Otho espoused Alix, widow of Lotharius king of Italy; and gained a decisive conquest over Beranger, who had recently persecuted and stripped her of her dominions. A. D. 950.

Shortly after the solemnisation of this marriage, Ludolphus engaged in a treasonable confederacy with Conrade duke of Franconia, and several other German noblemen. This unnatural revolt produced some serious hostilities, and occasioned the destruction of the city of Ratisbon: but, after some time, the prince was made sensible of his error, and took an opportunity, while his father was hunting, to throw himself at his feet, and implore his clemency. "Have pity," said he, "upon your misguided child, who returns like the prodigal son to his father. If you permit him to live after he has deserved death, he will assuredly repent of his folly and ingratitude, and the residue of his life shall be marked by exemplary fidelity and obedience." To this affecting appeal Otho could only reply by a flood of tears and a paternal embrace; but when his agitation subsided, he assured the penitent of his warmest favor, and generously pardoned all his adherents. The bitter reproaches, however, which Ludolphus received from the Italians, in his subsequent expedition against Beranger, overwhelmed him with insupportable distress, and eventually brought him to an untimely grave.

At

A. D. 960. At the earnest solicitation of the Italians, Otho repaired in person to Rome, where he was solemnly crowned emperor of the Romans, dignified with the appellation of Augustus, and honored with the homage of the senate and people, who unanimously swore obedience to him as their lawful sovereign. Letters patent were also signed by himself, the prelates, and nobles, importing that, according to the agreement formerly made with Eugenius and his successor, the Roman clergy and nobility should bind themselves by oath to hold no canonical election, and to assist at the consecration of no pope, until he should, in the presence of the emperor's son, or ambassador, make the same promise which Leo III. had voluntarily given on the same subject.

Notwithstanding the exterior marks of respect which he received upon this occasion, Otho had scarcely withdrawn his army before pope John introduced Albert, the son of Beranger, into the city, and endeavoured to excite the fears of the populace, by asserting that the lands of the church were in danger. The emperor, however, returned with such speed to Rome that the treacherous pontiff and his new patron consulted their safety by flight; and a council was convened, which, after a mature examination of John's licentious conduct, solemnly deposed him, and elected Leo VIII. to fill the papal chair. This pontiff executed a decree by which Otho was recognised emperor of the Romans and king of Italy, with all the rights and prerogatives to him and his successors which pope Adrian I. had granted to Charlemagne; so that from this period Otho may be justly styled Emperor of the Romans.

While

While Otho was employed in appeasing some disturbances at Spolito and Camerina, the deposed pontiff, with the assistance of several Roman prelates, returned to his capital, and wrested from Leo his new dignity. In a few days, however, John was detected in an amorous intrigue, and his life was sacrificed to the resentment of a rival. The adherents of John now elected Benedict V. to the chair of St. Peter: but, at the return of Otho, this pontiff resigned his pretensions in favor of Leo, who, at the emperor's desire, pardoned him, and sent him to Hamburg, permitting him to retain deacon's orders.

Upon the demise of Leo VIII., Otho appointed in his place John XIII., who seems to have been peculiarly obnoxious to the Romans; for they not only refused to submit to his authority, but even threw him into close confinement. They were soon, however, made sensible of their imprudence: for the exasperated emperor immediately hastened to Rome, where he restored John to the pontificate; exiled the consuls; hanged twelve of the tribunes; caused the dead body of Jefroi, the author of the revolt, to be torn from the grave, and thrown into a common sewer; and ordered the prefect, his successor, to be publicly scourged and thrown into a dungeon.

Having terrified the Romans into obedience by these examples of severity, the emperor caused his son Otho to be crowned as his associate in the empire. He then made a tour through the cities of Italy, and acquired a considerable degree of popularity by confirming the donations of Pepin and Charlemagne.

During Otho's residence at Capua, he received an

an embassy from Nicephorus Phocas, emperor of Constantinople, who professed a desire of renewing the alliance which formerly subsisted between the Eastern and Western empires. Otho returned a polite answer to the Greek emperor, and signified his assent to a match which had been proposed between his own son Otho and the princess Theophania. But Nicephorus was so highly incensed at the refusal of some other demands, that he resolved to take a cruel revenge; and, accordingly, when the German embassadors were sent to fetch his daughter, he caused both them and their attendants to be massacred. This enormous perfidy, however, was soon punished by an imperial army, under counts Gonther and Sigifrid; and, on the subsequent assassination of Nicephorus, the princess Theophania was sent, with a magnificent train, into Italy, where her marriage with the emperor's son was immediately solemnised.

A. D. 972. About two years after this event the emperor died, of an apoplectic disorder, at the city of Minleben in Saxony, after an active reign of thirty years, during which he gave some extraordinary proofs of piety, courage, and generosity, and justly acquired the epithet of *Great*. His consort Alix retired into a convent immediately after his decease; and his remains were interred with due solemnity in the cathedral church of Magdebourg, where his tomb may still be distinguished by a Latin inscription.

Otho II., surnamed the Sanguinary, succeeded his father on the imperial throne: but his authority was warmly disputed by Henry duke of Bavaria; and the commencement of his reign was disturbed

disturbed by some hostile incursions of the Danes and Bohemians. After some time, however, the rebellious duke was subdued, and banished to Utrecht; and the invaders were compelled to agree to a very disadvantageous peace.

No sooner were these commotions appeased, than Otho found himself involved in a troublesome war with Lotharius king of France. That monarch had revived his pretensions to the sovereignty of Lorrain, and granted his protection to the two sons of Ranier, count of Hainault, who had been deprived of his dominions during the reign of the late emperor. Otho attempted to appease the French king by some important concessions; but this proving unsuccessful, he assembled an army of sixty thousand men, made an irruption into the enemy's country, and committed such dreadful ravages, that he soon obtained peace upon his own terms. In this expedition, however, he was exposed to imminent danger by an inundation of the river Aisne, which destroyed a considerable part of his army.

A. D. 979.

After devoting some time to the arrangement of his affairs in Germany, he led a numerous body of forces into Italy, in order to punish a revolt of the Romans, and to recover Apulia and Calabria, which had been recently taken by the Greeks and Saracens. He accordingly entered Rome without opposition, and soon afterward hazarded a battle with the enemy; but his army was utterly defeated, and he was reduced to the necessity of committing himself to the mercy of the waves in a solitary vessel. This ship being taken by corsairs, who were totally ignorant of his quality, he was carried into Sicily;

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but on the payment of a large sum of money, he obtained his freedom.

A. D. 980. Soon after this event, he renewed the war with increased vigor, and his exertions were attended with such signal success, that the Saracens in Italy were utterly exterminated. He then chastised the pusillanimous troops who had deserted him in his former engagement; gave up the town of Beneventum to military execution, for having furnished his enemies with provisions; and revenged himself for the defection of the Romans, by causing many of the principal citizens to be massacred at a banquet. This action was certainly unworthy of a Christian prince; and it was probably upon this occasion that he was branded with the epithet of Sanguinary.

Having received intelligence that the Sclavonians had made an irruption into Saxony, and ravaged the bishoprics of Mersburg, Havelberg, and Brandenburg, he ordered the Saxons and Thuringians to have immediate recource to arms; and they acquitted themselves with such gallantry in several encounters, that the Sclavonians were eventually repulsed with the loss of thirty-seven thousand men.

A. D. 983. Some time after this invasion, the emperor died at Rome, of a bloody flux, which was occasioned by the wound of a poisoned javelin, received in his war with the Greeks. Some historians have asserted that his death was hastened by the imprudent behaviour of his empress Theophania, who had publicly exulted in the victory of her countrymen, though it was obtained over her own husband.

Otho III. was but twelve years of age when he succeeded

succeeded his father in the empire, for which reason he was surnamed the Infant; but this appellation was soon laid aside, and he acquired the epithet of Rufus. His election was vigorously opposed by one Crescentius in Italy; and Henry duke of Bavaria actually seized the person of young Otho at Cologne, claiming, as his near relation, the care of his education, and the government of the empire during his minority. The majority of the German princes, however, soon compelled Henry to renounce his pretensions, and the emperor was proclaimed at Weissemstadt with the usual solemnities.

The commencement of this reign was disturbed by some hostile incursions of the Danes and Sclavonians; but they were repulsed in several instances, and the imperial arms were, at length, decidedly victorious. About this time also a furious contest began between Charles duke of Lorrain and Hugh Capet, which terminated in the captivity of the former, and the exaltation of his rival to the crown of France.

The emperor, having now attained the age of discretion, made a progress through the different provinces of his empire, enacted some excellent regulations for the welfare and civilisation of his subjects, and confirmed the ecclesiastics in the enjoyment of many valuable privileges. At the same time the Saxons repulsed a fresh irruption of the Danes; and Eric king of Sweden soon afterward annexed Denmark to his hereditary dominions. Otho, being apprised of this circumstance, thought it advisable to court the friendship of his powerful neighbour; and a treaty was immediately concluded by the two A. D. 988.

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princes, which authorised the German missionaries to preach the gospel in the dominions of Eric, and promised future security to the inhabitants of the empire.

After the suppression of a revolt among the Romans, and the death of his mother Theophania, the emperor marched against the rebellious Sclaves; and having defeated them in several engagements, granted them peace, on condition of their releasing all their prisoners without ransom, and surrendering the places which they possessed on the frontiers of Brandenburg.

A fresh revolt being excited by Crescentius, the emperor marched with a numerous army into Italy, and took possession of Milan, where he was crowned king of Lombardy. He then repaired to Ravenna, and raised his relation Bruno to the papal chair, which had become vacant by the demise of John XV. The new pontiff assumed the name of Gregory V., and, on the first convenient opportunity, expressed his gratitude to his powerful patron, by crowing him king of the Romans.

Having restored the public tranquillity in Capua and Beneventum, and extended his pardon to the turbulent Crescentius, Otho set out on his return to Germany, taking his route through the principal towns of Lombardy. On his arrival at Modena, he gave a striking proof of his love of justice, by his conduct towards the empress Mary, daughter of the king of Arragon. That princess, exasperated at the coldness of an Italian count to whom she had made some amorous advances, accused him of having insulted her by an attempt upon her honour. In consequence of this charge, the unfortunate nobleman was tried, and sentenced

tenced to lose his head; but, as his innocence was clearly proved after his execution, the vile calumniatress was ordered to be burnt alive, and the emperor devoted a large sum of money to the benefit of the nobleman's widow.

No sooner had Otho returned into Germany and begun to make some necessary regulations, than he received the vexatious intelligence that Crescentius, having obtained the consulship in Rome, had expelled pope Gregory, and filled his place with another, who had assumed the name of John XVI. Hereupon the emperor marched with all possible expedition into Italy, made himself master of Rome, after a short siege, and treated the two usurpers with extraordinary severity: for the anti-pope, after suffering the loss of his sight and the amputation of his nose, was hurled from the top of the castle of St. Angelo; and Crescentius, after being exposed to public derision, and put to the torture, was hanged upon a high tree with twelve of his adherents.

A. D. 998.

After making these dreadful examples, and reinstating Gregory in his pontifical dignity, Otho made a tour through the towns of Upper Saxony; and thence proceeded to Poland, which he created into a kingdom, at the request of duke Boleslaus, who consented to hold his dominions as a fief of the empire. Shortly after this event, Otho was again called into Italy to repel an invasion of the Saracens, and to crush a fresh revolt of the turbulent Romans. His exertions against the Saracens were attended with complete success; but the Romans openly refused to submit to his authority; and while he was assembling an army to revenge this insult, he was poisoned by a widow, whom he

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is said to have seduced under a promise of marriage.

The Germanic empire sustained a heavy loss by the death of this prince; for he was equally famed on account of his munificence to the church, his valour in defending his dominions, and his equity in redressing the wrongs of his subjects. He died at Paterno, in the thirtieth year of his age and the nineteenth of his reign. He fixed upon Aix-la-Chapelle, in his last moments, as the place of his sepulture.

A. D. 1002. As Otho III. deceased without issue, three competitors immediately started up to claim the imperial dignity; Henry duke of Bavaria, Herman duke of Swabia, and Ekkard marquis of Saxony. The pretensions of these noblemen seem to have been nearly equal; but, by means of his superior power, the duke of Bavaria triumphed over his rivals, and was solemnly elected and consecrated, at Mentz, by the name of Henry II. It appears, however, that he did not obtain this success till Ekkard was removed by assassination.

Henry had no sooner assumed the imperial ensigns than he caused his surviving competitor, Herman, to be declared an enemy to the empire; and even employed the forces of Germany in ravaging his territories. Herman, on the other hand, resolved to support his pretensions by force of arms, and boldly challenged the emperor to decide their dispute by single combat: but, when Henry intimated his acceptance of the challenge, Herman's courage forsook him; and he was eventually compelled to bow before the superior fortune of his enemy.

In compliance with the earnest solicitations of his

his nobles, Henry espoused Cunegunda, daughter of the count of Luxembourg; and Paderborn was honoured with the celebration of the royal nuptials. He then made a tour through his provinces, deciding vexatious causes, re-establishing the peace of private families, and promoting a spirit of harmony among the grandees; and on his arrival at Aix-la-Chapelle, he was crowned a second time, for the satisfaction of several of the nobles, who had objected to the informality of his first coronation.

Shortly after this ceremony, Henry was sensibly vexed by the defeat of an army which he had sent into Italy, a revolution in Bohemia, and a rebellion of the Sclaves of Holstein, who, at the instigation of the king of Poland, had ravaged all the country between the Oder and the Elbe, and even threatened to desolate Saxony with fire and sword.

At the repeated solicitations of the archbishop of Milan, the emperor put himself at the head of his troops, and marched to Pavia, where he was solemnly crowned king of Lombardy; but the partisans of Hardouin, who had recently assumed the sovereignty, inflamed the unthinking populace to such a degree, that the whole city was thrown into commotion, the streets were sprinkled with the blood of Henry's adherents, and the emperor himself was obliged to retire to the fortress of St. Peter. The tumult, however, gradually subsided; and an apology of the principal inhabitants was generously accepted.

For seven years after this occurrence, Henry was fully employed in chastising the insolence of the Poles, and appeasing the frequent troubles of Lorrain. But his mind was fatigued by his perpetual exertions, and he ardently desired to abdicate the

the imperial throne, that he might devote the remainder of his life to religious retirement. These sentiments, however, were strongly combated by the princes of Germany, and he was, at length, persuaded to retain the government of a country which now required extraordinary care and attention.

A. D. 1014. Upon the conclusion of peace with Boleslaus king of Poland, Henry led a fresh army across the Alps, in order to chastise the insolence of Hardouin who had reassumed the supreme authority in Italy. He met and defeated his enemy on the frontiers of the Veronese; and was soon afterward crowned by pope Benedict VIII. in the city of Rome.

In passing through Burgundy, Henry visited the abbey of Clugni; and afterwards requested that he might be entered as a monk in the abbey of St. Vall, at Verdun. The abbot seemed to assent to his wish, and admitted him as a lay brother, on condition that he should obey him in every thing; but when Henry had promised implicit obedience, the abbot very prudently commanded him to continue at the helm of government. Some time after this occurrence, Rodolphus III., king of Transjurane Burgundy, came to implore the emperor's protection against his disaffected subjects; and the empress Cunegunda is said to have exculpated herself from the charge of infidelity by the fiery ordeal.

A. D. 1024. Having at length appeased all the troubles which had long distracted his dominions, Henry resolved to devote the remainder of his life to that repose which seems to have been the constant object of his wish; and in order to preserve

preserve a good understanding with his neighbours, he had an interview with Robert king of France; upon which occasion the two princes conceived a particular friendship for each other, and mutually concerted measures for the reformation and aggrandisement of their subjects. This conference seems to have been the last remarkable transaction of Henry's life; for he died in the month of July following, after a tolerably prosperous reign of twenty-two years. He was surnamed the Lame, from an impediment in his walking; and he received the appellation of the Hungarian Apostle, from his devotion and munificence to the church.

Violent disputes now arose respecting the nomination of a successor to the empire. At length, however, the Germanic princes and states assembled in the open fields, between Mentz and Worms; and Conrade duke of Franconia, surnamed the Salic*, was unanimously invested with the supreme authority.

A. D. 1027.

During the two first years of his reign, Conrade was chiefly employed in regulating the police, and other affairs of administration; but in the third, he received intelligence that the Lombards had shaken off their allegiance, and he was consequently obliged to march into Italy. The rebels, however, were soon reduced to obedience; and the conqueror was solemnly crowned at Rome, by pope John XX., in presence of Rodolphus III. king of Transjurane Burgundy, and Canute king of England. Soon after this event, Conrade's

* Conrade II. received this appellation from the circumstance of his having been born on the banks of the river Sala.

son,

son, Henry, was declared his successor, and crowned at Aix-la-Chapelle; and the dukes of Swabia, Worms, and Carinthia, who had endeavoured to excite a revolt, were, by a solemn decree, stripped of their dominions. The seven succeeding years were occupied by wars between the emperor, Poland, Bohemia, and Hungary; but as these offer nothing worthy of particular notice here, it is only necessary to observe, that the imperial arms were generally successful; and that, on the demise of Rodolphus, Conrade acquired the sovereignty of all Transjurane Burgundy.

After chastising a revolt of the Milanese, and receiving the benediction of pope Benedict IX., Conrade was seized with the gout in his legs, and died suddenly, at Utrecht, in the fifteenth year of his reign. He was universally revered as a just and magnanimous prince; and all those who distinguished themselves in his service had ample cause to applaud his munificence. Among many other instances of his generosity, we are told, that a gentleman who had lost his leg in battle, received as many pieces of gold as one of his boots would contain; which the emperor remarked might defray the expence of his cure.

A. D. 1040. Henry III., surnamed the Black, was permitted to ascend the imperial throne on his father's decease; and he immediately led a numerous army against Brztislaus duke of Bohemia who had refused to pay the accustomed tribute. This expedition was crowned with success; and in a subsequent one against Hungary, Henry acquired great reputation, by wresting the sceptre from an usurper, and restoring it to the lawful prince.

To

To resent the election of pope Gregory VI., which had taken place without his consent, the emperor marched with a powerful army into Italy; and, after being crowned king of Lombardy by the archbishop of Milan, he convened a council at Sutri, where Gregory was solemnly deposed, and Heideger bishop of Bamberg was admitted to the papal chair, by the name of Clement II. The new pontiff immediately placed the Italian diadem on the head of his illustrious patron; and the Romans promised, upon oath, that they would never again choose a pope without sending previous notice to the reigning emperor.

Upon the demise of Clement II., which happened soon after the emperor's return into Germany, a certain prelate of Bavaria intruded himself into the papacy; but he also died in about twenty-three days after his elevation. Henry now nominated a German bishop, named Bruno, to the popedom, and sent him to Rome, attended by one Hildebrand, a monk of the abbey of Cluny, who soon rendered himself famous by his intrigues in the ecclesiastical state. The new pontiff, who assumed the name of Leo IX., was soon summoned away by death; and Hildebrand, having contrived to raise Gebehard bishop of Eichstet to the vacant dignity, persuaded the emperor to confirm his election.

Henry, in the mean time, was successively harassed by a fresh quarrel with the Hungarians, the reprehensible conduct of Conrade duke of Bavaria, and a troublesome war with Flanders. After some hostilities, the imperial arms were crowned with complete success: and Henry's young son was declared king of the Romans, and heir to the empire. Some fresh commotions,

however, recalled the emperor into Italy; and a subsequent irruption of the Sclaves into Saxony, together with the public calamities of earthquakes, plague, and famine, overwhelmed his spirits with melancholy, and finally occasioned his death, in the thirty-ninth year of his age, and the sixteenth of his reign. He entered twice into the conjugal state; and by his second empress, Agnes, daughter of William duke of Poitou, he had two sons and three daughters.

A. D. 1056. Henry IV., surnamed the Great, was acknowledged emperor on the death of his father. But as he was at this time only five years of age, he was placed under the tutelage of his mother Agnes, who acquitted herself of that trust with equal prudence and affection. The empire, however, was sadly harassed by the quarrels of several private noblemen; and at the expiration of five years, the dukes of Saxony and Bavaria, with some other princes, deprived the empress dowager of the regency, and compelled her to seek an asylum in an Italian convent.

The young emperor was now placed under the care of the archbishops of Cologne and Bremen: but, unfortunately, these prelates exercised their employments in a very different manner; for whilst the former endeavoured to inspire the prince with a love of literature, and to store his mind with the principles of virtue, the latter indulged him in all his pleasures, and even studied the gratification of his desires, that he might render himself necessary to him in all his affairs. By these means Henry learnt to indulge himself in luxury, and gradually contracted many evil habits which he could never afterward restrain.

When

When Henry had attained the age of twenty-two, he took the reins of government into his own hands, and commenced his administration by restraining the robberies and extortions which the inhabitants of Saxony had long exercised upon strangers, and among themselves, to the great prejudice of the public tranquillity. In order to crush there practices, he took up his residence among them at Goslar, and ordered several castles to be erected as a check upon the delinquents, and a protection to the innocent sufferers. This measure, however, excited a general discontent in the duchy, and both laymen and ecclesiastics accused him of intending the subversion of their liberties. They even had the boldness to present him with a threatening memorial; and, after some time, made such hostile preparations, that he was compelled to enter into an accommodation with them, by the mediation of the princes of his empire. A. D. 1072.

It must indeed be acknowledged that the violence of Henry's passions often hurried him into indiscretions which fixed an indelible stain upon his moral character, and induced his most powerful adherents to abandon his interests. His incontinence, in particular, was so great, that he endeavoured to sacrifice every beautiful female to his unlawful pleasures; and he was so highly exasperated at his empress for attempting to obstruct these licentious amours, that he earnestly solicited the pope to dissolve his marriage, and even authorised one of his courtiers to attempt her honour, that he might obtain a divorce. But the injured princess conducted herself with exemplary prudence, and Henry's base designs were happily frustrated.

Soon after the conclusion of the treaty with his Saxon subjects, Henry was accused, by one of his own domestics, of having laid a plan for the destruction of the dukes of Swabia and Carinthia; and this calumny, though entirely groundless, proved of such prejudice to his affairs, that he was compelled to take refuge in the city of Worms; while the princes of the empire assembled at Mentz for the express purpose of deposing him, and of electing another emperor. After some time, however, a conference was held at Oppenheim, in which Henry, by a solemn acknowledgment of his faults, appeased the princes, and was permitted to resume his authority.

No sooner had the emperor's fears subsided, in consequence of this accommodation, than the Saxons broke out in a fresh revolt, which occasioned a prodigious effusion of blood; and, though they were eventually compelled to submit, they were encouraged by the partisans of Hildebrand, who had assumed the papacy under the name of Gregory VII., to send ambassadors to Rome, complaining of the injuries they had received from the emperor, and requesting that the pope would depose him, on account of his misconduct and immorality.

Henry was aware of the danger which attended the intrigues of a Roman pontiff; and therefore endeavoured to elude the impending storm by timely submission. This mode of conduct produced the desired effect; and Gregory, after absolving the imperial penitent, proposed to him a crusade, in order to deliver the holy sepulchre from the infidels. But this harmony was soon interrupted by some disturbances in Hungary; and Henry, after being cited to appear at Rome, deposed

deposed the pontiff who had dared to offer such an insult to his dignity; while Gregory took an ample revenge, by fulminating a sentence of excommunication against the emperor and all his adherents.

At this juncture, Henry's situation was truly distressing: for the pope found means to fix all the German bishops in his interest; the prelates gained over the noblemen; the Saxons cheerfully embraced such an opportunity of renewing their complaints; and even the princes who had recently assisted at the deposition of Gregory now gave up their emperor to be tried by that haughty pontiff, and solicited his holiness to visit Augsburg for that purpose.

The unfortunate emperor now perceived the impracticability of further resistance, and immediately set out for Italy, with his wife and infant son, in order to humble himself before the pope, who was then at Canosa. On his arrival, he was admitted within the outer gate, and informed that he must expect no favor until he should have fasted three days, standing, from morning to evening, bare-footed among the snow; and then implored forgiveness for his heinous offences. This penance was literally performed, notwithstanding the fatigue of his journey, and on the fourth day he was indulged with an absolution.

This circumstance gave great umbrage to the Italian princes, who were equally exasperated at Gregory's insolence, and the abject humility of the emperor. Henry, however, silenced their reproaches by expatiating on the cruel situation to which he had been reduced by the disaffection of his subjects; and, in order to show how sensible

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he was of the outrage which had been offered to his dignity, he soon declared himself the pope's mortal enemy.

In the mean time Gregory exerted himself so successfully in embroiling the affairs of Germany, that the princes of the empire actually renounced their allegiance, and placed Rodolphus duke of Swabia on the imperial throne. Henry, being apprised of this rebellion, marched with all possible dispatch from Italy, and gained three successive victories over his opponent: but his affairs still continued in a very perilous situation; a fresh sentence of excommunication was thundered out against him; and the Roman pontiff effectually revived the spirits of the malecontents, by confirming the election of Rodolphus.

Henry now convened an assembly of the German bishops at Mentz, where he asked their opinions about this pretended right of the pope to dethrone an emperor, and whether he might legally depose Hildebrand, and nominate another prelate to the apostolic chair. After mature deliberation, the nineteen bishops who were present proposed that Henry should call in all the other prelates, and hold a national council at Brixen. This the emperor readily agreed to; and, on the revival of the business at Brixen, the deposition of Gregory was solemnly confirmed, and cardinal Wiberti, archbishop of Ravenna, was chosen pope, under the name of Clement III.

Shortly after this event, Rodolphus reassembled some forces in Saxony, and began to make formidable preparations against his imperial competitor. Henry, receiving intelligence of these motions, marched against him with great expedition, and the two armies engaged near Mersberg with extraordinary

traordinary fury. For some time victory seemed to hover over the rebel troops; but their leader's hand being cut off by the duke of Lorrain, they were seized with a panic, and soon gave up the advantage which they had gained. Rodolphus, perceiving himself at the point of death, ordered the hand which he had lost to be brought to him, and, addressing himself to his officers, "Behold," said he, "the hand with which I took my oath of allegiance to Henry, which I have violated, at the instigation of the court of Rome, in perfidiously aspiring to an honour that was not my due!" Having uttered these words, he expired with great penitence, and was pompously buried at Mersberg in Saxony. The Saxons, being afterward afraid of Henry's indignation, would have removed the royal decorations which they had placed on the tomb of their fallen leader; but the emperor prevented their design, and told them he should be happy to see all his enemies as magnificently interred.

The disturbances of Germany being now partly composed, Henry led a numerous army into Italy, and avowed his intention of setting Clement in the papal chair; but Gregory had ordered the gates of Rome to be shut against him, and the garrison withstood a siege of two years and a half. At the expiration of that time, however, the city was taken by assault; Gregory retired first to the castle of St. Angelo, and afterward to Salerno; and the new pope, being consecrated in the church of St. Peter, expressed his gratitude, by crowning the emperor, on Easter-day, with the consent and applause of the Roman senate and people, who took the customary oath of allegiance.

A. D. 1081.

But Henry did not long enjoy the success of this expedition.

expedition. The Saxons and several other disaffected states elected count Herman, of Luxemburg, king of the Romans; and although this nobleman, and the marquis of Thuringia, who was afterwards nominated to the regal dignity, sunk beneath the victorious arms of the emperor, Germany still continued in a distracted state; and, by the intrigues of Urban II., who now filled the papal chair, all the provinces of Italy were soon seduced from their allegiance. To add to the emperor's distress upon this occasion, he heard that his own son, Conrade, had placed himself at the head of the rebels, assumed the title of king of Italy, and formed a powerful alliance by espousing the daughter of Roger king of Sicily.

A. D. 1099. In an assembly of the princes, held at Cologne, Conrade was put under the ban of the empire, and his brother Henry was crowned king of the Romans, after having promised that he would never intermeddle with the government without the express consent of his father. The emperor now hoped to enjoy some tranquillity, as the chiefs of the German rebels were dead, and an accommodation had been entered into with the Saxons and Bavarians. But his subsequent attempts to preserve the rights of the empire relative to the nomination of a pope, served to foment the enmity of the Romans, and induced Pascal III., the successor of Urban, to fulminate a new excommunication against him for introducing schisms into the church.

Whilst the emperor laboured under these pressing calamities, his unnatural son Henry took up arms against him, and avowed the intention of wresting the sceptre from his hands; alleging that, as the subjects were discharged from their allegiance, he was obliged to fulfil the duties of the imperial

imperial station; and that, as the laws of the church were superior to those of nature, he could not acknowledge Henry for his father until he should be absolved from the sentence of excommunication. The emperor used many remonstrances to dissuade his son from proceeding to such extremities: but these produced no effect; and the usurper brought an army into the field which put him in possession of Spire, and the imperial treasures. He then fixed a day for the princes to assemble at Mentz; but as he understood that the emperor designed to be present, with a very numerous army, he had recourse to treachery, and, throwing himself at his father's feet, implored forgiveness for his undutiful behaviour, which he imputed to the advice of evil counsellors. The ill-fated Henry heard this declaration with unspeakable joy, and, at the request of his son, disbanded the imperial army; but he was next day confined to his chamber by the supposed penitent, and the archbishop of Mentz and Cologne, together with the bishops of Worms, were sent to inform him of his deposition, and to demand the crown and other regalia.

The emperor received this deputation with equal concern and astonishment, and earnestly demanded the cause of such cruel and indignant treatment. The archbishop of Mentz replied, that he had rendered himself unworthy of wearing the imperial diadem, by the numerous schisms he had introduced into the church, and the scandalous manner in which he exposed benefices to sale. "If then," exclaimed the agitated prince, "we have prostituted the benefices of the church for hire, you are the most proper

A. D. 1106.

proper persons to convict us of that charge. Say, then, I adjure you in the name of the eternal God, what have we either exacted or received for your promotion to the dignities which you now enjoy?—You acknowledge our innocence with respect to your preferment; and yet, the archbishoprics of Mentz and Cologne being two of the best in our disposal, we might have filled our coffers by exposing them to sale, instead of bestowing them gratuitously upon persons who have made so unworthy a return for our benevolence. Alas! we begin to sink under the accumulated weight of age and sorrow, and but little of our mortal pilgrimage is left unperformed: suffer that little to be concluded in peace, and seek not to terminate our reign with misery; by becoming partisans of those who, in defiance of gratitude and allegiance, have lifted up their hands against their lawful sovereign."

As this pathetic address produced no effect on the minds of the unfeeling prelates, Henry put on his royal ornaments, and, seating himself in a chair of state, renewed his remonstrance to this effect: "Here are the ensigns of that royalty with which we were invested by God and the princes of the empire: if you disregard the wrath of Heaven, and the eternal reproach of mankind, so much as to lay violent hands upon your sovereign, and strip us of them by force, we are not in a condition to defend ourselves from such an outrage." This expostulation had no more effect than the former upon the ecclesiastical deputies, who immediately snatched the crown from Henry's head, and, dragging him from his seat, pulled off the imperial robes by force; whilst he lifted his streaming eyes

to

to heaven, acknowledging the sins of his youth, and imploring God to punish the perjury and insolence of his inhuman enemies.

Soon after this heart-rending occurrence, an assembly of the princes obliged the old emperor to make a voluntary resignation of his authority in favor of his infamous son. With this sad necessity he complied; and his spirit was so effectually broken, that he threw himself at the feet of the pope's legate, who was present, and earnestly besought him to absolve him from the sentence of excommunication; but his request was inhumanly refused, on pretence that he could receive absolution from no other than the sovereign pontiff himself. We are even told that this unhappy prince was afterwards reduced to such extreme indigence and misery, by the barbarity of his son, that he intreated the bishop of Spire to bestow upon him a canonicate for his subsistence, and that the prelate told him he durst not grant him such a favor without permission from the pope. This unexpected repulse, in a cathedral which had been founded and endowed by his ancestors and himself, seems to have pierced the soul of the degraded emperor; for he immediately burst into a flood of tears, and, turning to those who were present, he exclaimed, "Have pity on my condition, O my friends, for the hand of the Lord hath touched me!"

In contemplating the sad fate of this prince, who was hurled from the pinnacle of greatness to the lowest abyss of misery, divested of his honors, deprived of support, abandoned by his friends, and eventually thrown into prison by command of his son, we are naturally led to suppose that his courage must have been utterly extinguished, and his

his mind overwhelmed with despair. This surmise, however, is erroneous; for, after the first violence of his grief had subsided, he found means to elude the vigilance of his keepers, and repaired to the Low-countries, where he raised a considerable body of forces to attempt his restoration, and wrote circular letters to all the princes in Christendom in order to interest them in his misfortunes. He even wrote to the pope, offering terms of accommodation; and he had the satisfaction of seeing many of his subjects return to their allegiance: but before any thing of importance could take place, he died at Liege, in the fifty-sixth year of his age and the forty-ninth of his reign. His remains were interred in the cathedral with becoming solemnity: but his barbarous son ordered them to be dug up and deposited in the chapel of Afron, where they remained five years unburied, on account of his dying under the sentence of excommunication.

Upon an impartial review of the life of Henry IV., it appears that he was endowed with great courage, and many other excellent qualities; and, if he had not excited the indignation of his subjects by his youthful excesses, and inflamed the hatred of the Romans by an obstinate adherence to the rights of his prerogative, he might have eclipsed the glory of all his ancestors. A peculiar air of dignity was stamped upon his countenance; his conversation was lively and interesting; he possessed a mild and merciful temper; and he was so extremely charitable, that he is said to have entertained the sick, the lame, and the blind, at his own table, and even to have lodged them in his own apartment that he might be at hand to minister to their necessities. From the twelfth year of

of his age, he had been constantly engaged in the toils of war; he had commanded in sixty pitched battles, and survived many secret attempts that were made upon his life. He frequently expressed a lively contrition for the enormities which had disgraced the commencement of his reign; and he met his death with equal fortitude and resignation.

A. D. 1107.

Henry V., surnamed the Young, endeavoured to establish himself in the authority which he had so basely usurped, by conciliating the esteem of his ecclesiastics: but the natural haughtiness of his temper soon induced him to change his conduct, and a quarrel broke out between him and pope Paschal II., about the long-disputed question of investitures, which threatened very serious consequences.

After an unsuccessful invasion of Hungary, and a troublesome war with the Poles, the emperor crossed the Alps with an army of eighty thousand men, and a great number of noblemen, in order to assert the rights of his crown in Italy, and to do himself justice either by negociation or force of arms. Having reduced some cities which attempted to dispute his passage, he sent a splendid embassy to Paschal, and soon afterwards concluded a treaty of peace at Sutri, to his entire satisfaction.

A. D. 1111.

It appears, however, that the Roman pontiff was insincere in all his concessions: for on the very day of the emperor's entry into Rome, several persons belonging to his train were grossly insulted by the populace; the new treaty of peace was formally opposed by the Italian prelates; and a spirit of disaffection seemed to rule predominant in the breasts of the citizens.

 Exasperated

Exasperated at these indignities, Henry ordered his soldiers to seize the person of the pope, and permitted them to maltreat the cardinals and bishops without distinction. The consul now put all the Romans under arms, and a battle was fought, next morning, with extraordinary fury and resolution. The citizens, however, were eventually defeated with such prodigious slaughter that the Tiber was actually stained with their blood; the walls of the city were rased in several places; and the pope, after enduring an irksome imprisonment, and witnessing the execution of his best friends, was obliged to comply with all the demands of his conqueror, and to ratify the former accommodation.

Upon the conclusion of this treaty, Henry was solemnly crowned at Rome; and the pope, in token of perfect reconciliation, divided the host between the emperor and himself, with these words:—"As I divide the body of our Lord, so may he be divided from Christ and his kingdom, who shall attempt to violate this accommodation." But, though Paschal preserved the exterior marks of good faith and friendship, the court of Rome still acted with its accustomed treachery; and Henry had the mortification to hear that the new bull, relative to investitures, was publicly burnt, and himself excommunicated by the council of Lateran, for having presumed to revive the prerogative of his ancestors.

A. D. 1117. After mature deliberation, Henry set out for Rome, in order to crush the dangerous intrigues which were perpetually forming against him; and the pope, being apprised of his intention, retired into Apulia. During his march, the emperor secured several important towns, and contrived

contrived to gain over Ptolemy count of Tusculum, who prevailed upon the Romans to decree a triumph to their illustrious visitor. The ceremony of his coronation was also repeated by the archbishop of Prague, who had attended him on this expedition.

Henry had no sooner quitted Rome, than the papal chair became vacant by the demise of Paschal; and cardinal Cajetan was immediately nominated as his successor, under the name of Gelasius II. The emperor was highly incensed upon this occasion, and, having expelled Gelasius, bestowed the sovereign pontificate on Maurius Burdinus. But, after a short time, Calixtus, cardinal archbishop of Vienne, was solemnly elected to fill that high station, and the anti-pope set up by Henry was doomed to pass the remainder of his days in a convent, after being exposed to the scoffs and insults of the populace.

Great disturbances were now fomented between the courts of Rome and Germany, A. D. 1124. and an alarming confederacy was formed against the emperor: but, after several embassies and negociations, a general council was convened at Rome, in which the long-contested affair of investitures was settled to the mutual satisfaction of all parties; and, in a subsequent diet held at Worms, the pope's legate administered the sacrament to Henry, as a token of perfect reconciliation.

Soon after his accommodation with the Roman pontiff, Henry found himself engaged in a civil war, by the revolt of Holland; and, notwithstanding the general success of his arms, a spirit of sedition continued to spread from town to town, and his own life was sometimes exposed to the most imminent danger. These misfortunes made a deep impression on his spirits, and are supposed to have

hastened

hastened his death, which happened at Utrecht in the forty-fifth year of his age and the nineteenth of his reign. Henry V. possessed a tolerable share of wisdom, policy, and courage; but he has been generally branded with the vices of cruelty, pride, and avarice, and his unnatural behaviour to his father has fixed an indelible stain upon his reputation.

A. D. 1125. It was generally supposed that the supreme dignity would be conferred upon one of the nephews of the deceased emperor. But Albert archbishop of Mentz prevailed on the princes of the empire to give their suffrages in favor of Lotharius duke of Saxe-Supplembourg, who was accordingly crowned at Aix-la-Chapelle, in presence of the pope's nuncio. His competitors made some vigorous exertions for the support of their pretensions; but, after a sanguinary and unavailing contest, they took the oath of allegiance, and were honoured with particular marks of their sovereign's friendship.

A. D. 1133. After a successful expedition against the Bohemians, Lotharius undertook to re-establish pope Innocent II., who had been forced from the apostolic chair by an anti-pope called Anacletus. This attempt answered his expectation, and Innocent remunerated his services by performing the ceremony of his coronation with great magnificence. Some time after these transactions, his holiness was exposed to imminent danger by an hostile incursion of Roger king of Sicily: but Lotharius again advanced to his assistance, and Roger's insult was punished by the loss of all his Italian possessions.

On his return to Germany, Lotharius was seized with a dangerous distemper, which terminated his

life

life in the twelfth year of his reign. By command of this prince, the Justinian code of laws, which had been disused for upwards of five hundred years, was revived in the empire. This reign was also rendered remarkable by some excessive heats in Germany, which withered the corn and fruits of the earth, dried up the most considerable rivers, and occasioned a dreadful mortality among the cattle.

Having paid the last duties to their deceased emperor, the princes and states assembled at Coblentz, and unanimously elected Conrade duke of Franconia, to fill the vacant throne. This measure was warmly resented by Henry of Bavaria, surnamed the Haughty, and he positively refused to surrender the regalia, which had been deposited in his hands by Lotharius: but after some time he was compelled to submit, and his grief on the subsequent alienation of his territories brought him to his grave. A. D. 1139.

Upon the demise of this nobleman, his brother Guelphe, with the assistance of the king of Sicily, raised the standard of rebellion, and made some vigorous exertions for the recovery of the confiscated duchies. After several indecisive engagements, however, he was closely besieged by the emperor in the castle of Weinsberg, and compelled to surrender at discretion. Upon this occasion, the duchess petitioned that herself and the other women belonging to the castle might come out with as much as each could carry, and be conducted to a place of safety. Conrade readily granted her request, supposing that the ladies were anxious for the preservation of their treasures; but when he saw them staggering under the weight of their husbands, who had incurred his resentment, he burst into tears

tears at the affecting spectacle, and freely pardoned the objects of their conjugal affection.

A. D. 1144. The troubles of Germany were immediately succeeded by a revolt of several Italian towns, and a sedition among the Romans: but on the elevation of Eugenius III. to the papal chair, the rebels were reduced to obedience.

A. D. 1147. Conrade was now prevailed on, by the repeated admonitions of St. Bernard, to engage in a crusade against the Saracens, for the defence of the Holy Land; and he accordingly set out for Palestine, at the head of sixty thousand cavalry. But most of his forces were sacrificed to the treachery of the Greek emperor, and the irresistible fury of the Turks; and he was soon compelled to return into his own dominions. The sad catastrophe of this expedition filled the empire with consternation; and the curses of the populace were liberally bestowed upon St. Bernard, who, by his assurances of honour, wealth, and victory, had drained their treasures, and occasioned the destruction of their bravest soldiers: yet such was the epidemic madness of the times, that another crusade was formed against the Moors, who were in possession of Portugal; and a third was afterwards undertaken against the pagans of Sclavonia, whose country was literally desolated with fire and sword.

The death of the emperor's eldest son, who had been elected king of the Romans, seems to have made a very deep impression on his spirits, and considerably affected his health. However, being anxious to provide for the succession, he convened a diet at Bamberg, and recommended his nephew, Frederic Barbarossa, to the states of the empire, as a prince of known courage and ample capacity.

This

This recommendation was universally approved; and Conrade died soon afterward at Bamberg, in the fourteenth year of his reign. He left one son by his empress Gertrude, but his tender age precluded him from ascending the throne; and, indeed, Conrade would never have consented to involve his dominions in the troubles which are generally attendant upon a long minority.

CHAP. II.

From the Accession of Frederic Barbarossa to the Election of Rodolphus, Founder of the Austrian Greatness.

A. D. 1152. FREDERIC I., surnamed Barbarossa, was solemnly crowned at Aix-la-Chapelle, in the twenty-ninth year of his age; and he had the pleasure of receiving congratulatory addresses from almost all the princes of Europe.

Having compromised some differences between the princes of the empire, and compelled Sueno to do homage for the kingdom of Denmark, Frederic put himself at the head of a numerous army, and marched into Italy, where several cities had recently thrown off their allegiance, and the Romans had made an insurrection against the pope's sovereignty. This expedition was attended with complete success: for the revolted towns were quickly reduced; the Romans were obliged to acknowledge their pontiff's supremacy; and the victorious emperor was solemnly crowned with the Lombard and imperial diadems.

Some time after these transactions, a quarrel broke out between Frederic and his holiness, respecting the imperial authority; and a letter of Adrian IV., which audaciously intimated his power of transferring the empire from the Germans to the Greeks, occasioned an universal consternation. Frederic, however, acted with such spirit and resolution, that his adversary thought proper to elude chastisement,

chastisement, by writing a second letter, in which he explained away the meaning of his former expressions.

Notwithstanding this submission on the part of Adrian, the emperor resolved to march into Italy, and assert the rights of his imperial crown. Accordingly, after reducing Bolislaus duke of Poland, confirming the sovereignty of Waldemar, and securing the fidelity of the king of Hungary, he crossed the Alps with a very numerous army, and reduced Brescia, which had the presumption to oppose his passage. He then compelled all the revolted cities of Lombardy to return to their allegiance; and held an assembly on the plain of Roncalie, where he enacted several laws for the maintenance of tranquillity, ascertained the prerogatives of royalty, and exacted homage of all who held of the empire, without making any distinction between laymen and ecclesiastics. The latter part of these proceedings gave great umbrage to his holiness, and a grand embassy of legates was sent to complain of the disrespect which had been thus offered to their church: but Frederic effectually silenced them by observing, that Jesus Christ himself, though lord of the universe, had deigned to pay, for himself and St. Peter, the tribute which was demanded in the name of Cæsar.

A. D. 1158.

Whilst Frederic was employed in chastising the Milanese for a fresh insurrection, pope Adrian died; and a schism arose in the election of a successor to the papacy. The greatest part of the cardinals, who were on the spot at the time of his death, gave their suffrages on behalf of Roland, chancellor of the church, who assumed the name of Alexander III.: and the rest chose Octavian of St. Cecilia,

Cecilia, who tore the papal robe, by force, from his competitor, and caused himself to be proclaimed by the name of Victor IV. The emperor, being apprised of this circumstance, convened a council at Pavia, in which Victor was recognised as lawful pope, and declared with the usual solemnities; whilst Alexander thundered out a sentence of excommunication against the emperor and his adherents, and took refuge in the dominions of Lewis the Young, where he was received with equal respect and hospitality.

A.D. 1164. The severity which Barbarossa had exercised upon the Milanese excited most of the other Italian states against him, and induced them again to shake off the imperial yoke. The Romans and Venetians accordingly entered into a confederacy with the inhabitants of Padua, Vicenza, and Verona; the citizens of Milan rebuilt their walls, and pillaged the castle of Trea of immense treasures; and the imperial army was so dreadfully afflicted by disease, as to render a return into Germany indispensably necessary.

Meanwhile, Alexander continued to receive the homage of his numerous adherents; and all Italy was tired of a schism which had continued under three anti-popes. At length fortune seemed to desert the imperial arms; and the loss of a battle near Signano, together with a naval defeat by the Venetians in which his eldest son was taken prisoner, induced the emperor to conclude a peace with his formidable enemy. Alexander readily embraced his proposals; and an accommodation was soon afterwards entered into with the revolted cities. Calixtus, the anti-pope, also received a free pardon; and, in order to prevent future schisms, it was decreed that no pope should be deemed lawfully elected,

elected, unless two-thirds of the votes were in his favor.

During these transactions in Italy, Henry duke of Saxony, surnamed the Lion, raised fresh troubles in Germany, by oppressing his own subjects, and committing many outrages against his neighbours. Upon the emperor's return, therefore, Henry was summoned to a diet, in order to answer for his misconduct; and on his refusing to appear he was put to the ban of the empire, and stripped of all his dominions. After some time, however, he excited the compassion of the emperor, and prevailed on him to promise that the territories of Brunswic and Lunenburg should be protected on behalf of his children. Having obtained this assurance, he retired to England, where he was hospitably entertained by his father-in-law, Henry II., and where his wife bore him a fourth son, from whom the present illustrious house of Brunswic is descended.

After this event, Frederic made a tour through the Italian cities, caused his son Henry to be crowned king of Lombardy, and negociated a match between that prince and Constance, sister of William king of Sicily. But no remarkable political occurrence claims our attention till the year 1188, when the emperor engaged in a crusade against sultan Saladin, and marched at the head of a prodigious army into the dominions of the Greek emperor, whom he chastised for his perfidious conduct. Having crossed the Hellespont, and refreshed his troops for a few days at Laodicea, he fell upon the Turks, and defeated them in several engagements. He also pillaged the city of Iconium, led his victorious followers across Mount Taurus, and filled all Asia Minor with the terror of his name: but whilst the Christians of that country

county expected to derive the most important advantages from his assistance, he was unfortunately drowned in the river Cydnus, in the sixty-ninth year of his age and the thirty-eighth of his reign.

His son Frederic, duke of Swabia, having performed the rites of sepulture to the emperor at Tyre, hastened to join the army of the eastern Christians, who were engaged in the siege of Ptolemais; but he soon fell a victim to an infectious disorder; and most of his troops returned, with the duke of Guelderland and the landgrave of Thuringia, into Germany.

A. D. 1190. Henry VI., surnamed the Severe, had been already elected king of the Romans, and acknowledged as the lawful successor of the empire: but the commencement of his reign was disturbed by some fresh outrages of Henry the Lion, who had returned from England; and several bloody engagements took place before the malecontents were reduced to submission. At length, however, an accommodation was successfully negociated, and the emperor marched into Italy, in order to receive the imperial diadem from the hands of the pope, and to recover the succession of William king of Sicily, who had died without legitimate issue.

A. D. 1191. On his arrival at Rome, Henry and his empress Constance were solemnly crowned by pope Celestine III.; but that insolent pontiff had no sooner placed the crown on Henry's head, than he kicked it off again, as a proof of the power inherent in the successors of St. Peter to give and take away the imperial dignity according to their own caprice. So gross an insult certainly merited an exemplary chastisement; but the emperor seems to have passed it over in silence.

Henry

Henry now resolved to make some vigorous exertions against Tancred count of Leccio, who had been lately placed on the throne of Sicily; and his forces soon reduced the towns of Campania, Apulia, and Calabria: but whilst he was engaged in the subsequent blockade of Naples, a dreadful distemper broke out in the camp, and he was soon compelled to return to Germany.

Having prevailed on the princes of the empire to enact a law for rendering the supreme dignity hereditary in his house, Henry applied himself very attentively to the administration of justice, sitting in person to hear and redress the grievances of all his subjects. One of his favourites observing that he fatigued himself too much with giving audience, which frequently interfered with his necessary meals, Henry replied, that although a private man was at liberty to eat when he pleased, a prince ought not to sit down to table till he had discussed the affairs of his people.

Soon after the termination of a quarrel between Henry the Lion and Rodolphus count of Holstein, Richard king of England returned from Palestine; and, being shipwrecked on the coast of the Adriatic, assumed the habit of a pilgrim, that he might safely pass through the territories of Leopold duke of Austria, whom he had offended at the siege of Ptolemais. Leopold, however, obtained intelligence of this event, and caused the unfortunate monarch to be seized, and loaded with chains. After some time, the emperor demanded that the royal prisoner should be put into his hands, and compelled him to appear before a diet at Haguenau, where he was formally accused of maintaining an usurper on the throne of Sicily, preventing the con-

conquest of Jerusalem by his disagreement with the king of France, unlawfully invading the kingdom of Cyprus, insulting the duke of Austria during the siege of Ptolemais, consenting to the assassination of the marquis of Montserrat, and finally concluding a truce with Saladin contrary to the general interests of Christendom.

The king of England replied, that, although he was accountable to no person for his actions, yet, as his honor was concerned, he would wave his royal prerogative, and vindicate his character from these aspersions. He affirmed that he had not made any exertions either for the elevation of Tancred or the confirmation of his authority, but had merely treated with him as a prince in actual possession of the Sicilian crown; that the ill success of the crusade in Palestine resulted entirely from the jealousy of the French monarch, who was the first to retire from the scene of action; that he had, indeed, wrested the kingdom of Cyprus from a tyrannical usurper, who had incurred his resentment, but had afterward ceded it in favor of Gui de Lusignan, to indemnify him for the loss of Jerusalem; that the duke of Austria had effectually revenged his supposed insult, by loading a sovereign prince with chains; that the marquis of Montserrat had acquitted him of all suspicion of being concerned in his murder, by requesting, with his latest breath, that the city of Tyre might be delivered into his hands; and, lastly, that the truce he had concluded with Saladin could not be the effect of any interested view, since of all the booty he had taken from the caravan of Babylon, he had reserved nothing to himself but the ring upon his finger.

This

This explanation made a deep impression on the German princes, who not only admitted the defence, but pitied the misfortunes, of Richard, and with one consent solicited their emperor to set him at liberty. By the intrigues of the French monarch, however, Richard was detained for a considerable time, and was, at length, compelled to purchase his freedom upon the hard conditions of paying one hundred and fifty thousand marks of silver, liberating the king of Cyprus and his daughter, and bestowing his niece Eleanor of Bretagne upon the eldest son of the duke of Austria. However, Leopold died soon afterwards, confessing his injustice toward the king of England; his successor sent back the princess Eleanor, who did not happen to captivate his affections; and the emperor dispatched an ambassador to solicit the future friendship of Richard, and to promise restitution of the sum which had been exacted for his ransom. A. D. 1193.

Shortly after these transactions, Henry sent a considerable body of troops against Naples, under the command of his lieutenant Berthold, who obtained some considerable advantages during his march, and gave up the towns of Recca, Sexti, and Venafro, to be pillaged by his followers. Tancred immediately made preparations for checking the progress of the imperial general; but the death of his son Roger made so deep an impression on his spirits, that he soon fell a victim to grief; and his surviving son William, though in his cradle, was declared king of Sicily. A. D. 1194.

Upon the first intelligence of Tancred's death, the emperor repaired to Genoa, and thence to Naples, which, by the vigorous exertions of himself and his allies, was soon reduced, together with Apulia and Calabria. Palermo also was taken by

 assault,

assault, and the citizens were treated with such exemplary severity for an insult which they had formerly offered to the empress, that all the other towns were terrified into submission, and Henry found himself in peaceable possession of the two Sicilies. He then prevailed on Tancred's widow, with her infant son and two daughters, to surrender themselves upon certain terms of accommodation: but they were no sooner in his power, than, in direct violation of his royal word, he stripped them of all their treasures, caused the harmless infant to be emasculated and deprived of sight, and confined the widow and her unfortunate daughters in a monastery.

Having settled the affairs of his new kingdom, and seized all the immense treasures which had been amassed by Tancred and his predecessors, the emperor returned into Germany; where he caused his infant son Frederic to be elected king of the Romans; and, in a general diet at Worms, declared his resolution of taking the cross to succour the Christians in the Holy Land. This declaration was received with general applause; a multitude of soldiers from all the imperial provinces expressed a desire to engage in the purposed expedition; and even Margaret, queen dowager of Hungary, resolved to enlist among the crusaders.

But whilst two powerful armies were sent toward Palestine, Henry was obliged to employ a third against the Sicilians, who had raised a rebellion, and taken vigorous measures for shaking off the imperial yoke. On his arrival at Naples, he divested all the Neapolitans, Calabrians, and Sicilians, of their lucrative offices and employments, and even extended his severity to the clergy, by annulling their exemptions from military service. This rigor, however, only served to inspire the

the Sicilians with a kind of desperate resentment; and even the empress Constance was so highly provoked at the unworthy treatment of her countrymen, that a general insurrection was fomented under her immediate encouragement, and Henry, having permitted most of his troops to embark for Palestine, was compelled to conclude a peace with the malecontents on very disadvantageous terms. A few days after this accommodation the emperor died, as was generally supposed, of a fever, occasioned by too violent exercise in hunting; but some historians have hinted that he received a deleterious potion from the hands of Constance, who dreaded the effects of his vindictive disposition.

Henry VI. appears to have possessed many good qualities, and was generally renowned for his prudence, eloquence, courage, and reputation: but he was justly charged with cruelty; and his perfidious behaviour towards the king of England and the family of Tancred were equally unworthy of his character as a sovereign or a Christian. The troops whom he had sent into Asia abandoned their design upon the first intelligence of his death, and returned into Europe, leaving Palestine in the hands of the Saracens.

Philip duke of Swabia now assumed the administration, in compliance with the request of his dying brother, who sent him the regalia, and committed to his tuition the young king of the Romans. But pope Innocent III. immediately declared against these measures, and not only exhorted the German princes to set aside the house of Swabia and proceed to the election of another king of the Romans, but was even heard to affirm that Philip should lose the empire, or he himself forfeit the papacy. This scandalous behaviour

A. D. 1197.

viour on the part of the sovereign pontiff soon occasioned violent dissensions in Germany; and Otho duke of Saxony was solemnly crowned by one party, while Frederic's election was confirmed by another, and Philip was chosen king of the Romans, that he might exercise the office of guardian with more authority.

These elections soon spread slaughter and consternation over the empire. Otho was strongly supported by the pope, and by his uncle Richard of England; and Philip found a powerful patron in the king of France, notwithstanding the ecclesiastical thunders of his inveterate enemy. Every nobleman was now at variance with his neighbour; the ties of friendship and consanguinity were alike disregarded; the most flagrant outrages were committed by a licentious soldiery; the finest territories were cruelly ravaged; and the face of the country was in many parts literally covered with ruins or crimsoned with blood.

A. D. 1208. After many desperate but indecisive conflicts, Otho was obliged to seek refuge in England, and Philip remained undisputed master of the empire: but whilst he was labouring to conciliate the affections of his subjects, and endeavouring to procure an accommodation with the pope, he was basely assassinated by the count-palatine Otho of Wittlesbach, whom he had incensed by refusing to give him one of his daughters in marriage.

Such was the untimely end of Philip—a prince endowed with many amiable qualities, and sincerely regretted by all who knew him. His countenance was comely and interesting, his behaviour remarkably affable, and his eloquence persuasive. He acted with great prudence during the whole of his

his administration, and he possessed in an eminent degree the virtues of clemency and liberality.

Otho, being apprised of his competitor's death, hastened to Halberstadt, where his election was renewed by the princes of Saxony, Misnia, and Thuringia; and he soon afterwards conciliated the esteem of the opposite faction by espousing Beatrice, daughter of the deceased regent.

After settling the affairs of the empire, and securing the loyalty of his clergy by many considerable promises, he set out for Italy, and was solemnly crowned at Rome by the pope. But, notwithstanding the apparent friendship of Innocent, and some important concessions on the part of the emperor, the Romans took up arms, on some trifling occasion, and killed upwards of a thousand Imperialists on the spot; Otho's remonstrances were but little regarded; and the pope took an early opportunity of seizing Apulia, together with the marquisate of Ancona, and the county of Spoleto.

Otho judged it advisable to dissemble his resentment for the present, and accordingly quitted Rome in apparent friendship with his holiness: but, in the ensuing spring, he put himself at the head of a numerous army, and avowed his intention of re-establishing his authority in those countries which had been unjustly withdrawn from the empire. This declaration was soon followed by several victories; the dominions of Frederic king of the Two Sicilies were ravaged by the conquering army; and Innocent learned, with equal grief and indignation, that the protection of the holy see was too weak to repel the arms of his exasperated enemy. Recourse was now had to the ecclesiastical thunders; and an assembly was held

held at Bamberg, in compliance with the pope's desire, in which Otho was solemnly deposed, and Frederic duke of Swabia and king of Sicily, who in his infancy had been proclaimed king of the Romans, was nominated to the imperial throne.

Alarmed at these measures, Otho hastened into Germany, and prosecuted the war with some success against the rebels: but in attempting to weaken the power of France, he was defeated with prodigious slaughter; and his young competitor succeeded so effectually in conciliating the esteem of the Germans, that he was eventually compelled to resign all pretensions to the crown, and to seek a retreat in Brunswic, where he died after a short and unfortunate reign.

A.D. 1215. Frederic II., at this time about eighteen years of age, ascended the throne in full possession of those accomplishments which are expected to give lustre to a diadem, and to render a nation happy. He had been carefully instructed in the Latin, Greek, German, French, and Turkish, languages; and had studied, above all things, to imitate the conduct of his illustrious grandfather Frederic I. He was crowned at Aix-la-Chapelle with great magnificence; and, as an acknowledgment of the favors which Divine Providence had hitherto bestowed upon him, he made a vow to go in person to the Holy Land.

The first four years of Frederic's reign having been spent in arranging the affairs of the empire, and curbing the rebellious spirit of Otho's adherents, he made a progress into Italy in the summer of 1220, and received the imperial crown from Honorius III. He also caused his son Henry to be declared king of the Romans, and promised, upon oath, that he would lead an army into Asia,

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at any time his holiness should appoint. However he delayed so long to perform his vow, that Honorius threatened him with excommunication; and a rupture ensued which presaged very serious consequences: for the emperor not only sent a very severe remonstrance to the pope, but published a manifesto for the justification of his own conduct, and ordered his troops to march to the frontiers of the ecclesiastical state. Honorius now perceived the necessity of apologising for his rashness; and a reconciliation soon took place in which Frederic agreed to marry Yolanda, daughter of the king of Jerusalem; and promised to set out with an army in two years, for the recovery of Palestine.

Notwithstanding these fresh engagements, Frederic still hesitated to take the cross; and a revolt of the Lombards excused his delay for about two years; but on the termination of those troubles, Honorius renewed his remonstrances, and a literary correspondence commenced, in which he accused the emperor of ingratitude and cruelty towards his father-in-law, who had ceded his title to the kingdom of Jerulalem; and Frederic recriminated by charging his adversary with having disturbed the peace of Italy, and granted an asylum to persons who had dared to raise the standard of rebellion against their lawful sovereign.

On the demise of Honorius, and, the elevation of Gregory IX. to the apostolic chair, Frederic avowed his intention of performing his engagement, and actually set sail from Brundusi, with a magnificent equipage and a very powerful armament: but, about three days after he had put to sea, a slight indisposition served A. D. 1228.

served him as an excuse for returning. Hereupon the pope excommunicated him; and such commotions ensued, that Frederic thought proper to set out immediately for the Holy Land. As he did not wait, however, for an absolution from the papal anathema, he met with a very cold reception at Jerusalem; the crusaders peremptorily refused to acknowledge him as their chief; and the consequent improbability of acquiring any military reputation, induced him to conclude a treaty with the Saracens. He then caused himself to be crowned at Jerusalem, and returned to Naples with an empty title, which, from that time, has been preserved by the Sicilian monarchs.

The emperor still laboured under the sentence of excommunication; and the Roman pontiff was so highly exasperated at his treaty with the sultan of Egypt, that the breach seemed to be considerably widened. Frederic, however, resolved to support his authority by force of arms; and his soldiers committed such dreadful ravages in the ecclesiastical state, that Gregory thought proper to listen to terms of accommodation, and the papal fulmination was withdrawn.

This reconciliation, however, was immediately followed by fresh troubles. The Lombards peremptorily refused to bear the imperial yoke; and after Frederic had been employed nearly five years in reducing them to obedience, Germany was suddenly involved in commotion, and Henry king of the Romans, forgetting or totally disregarding the duties of a son, put himself at the head of the rebels. This prince, however, acted with such extreme caution that many of the nobles approved without understanding his conduct; and although, on Frederic's return, he was fully convicted

victed of rebellion, his crime was imputed entirely to evil counsellors, and he was permitted to retire into Sicily. Thus dismissed with impunity, Henry engaged in fresh schemes against his father's authority, and even promised to succour those towns in Lombardy which still refused to return to their allegiance. Frederic now perceived his danger; and his ungrateful son was closely confined in the castle of Apulia.

Some time after this event, the emperor caused his second son, Conrade, to be elected king of the Romans; and then repaired into Lombardy, where several cities still remained in arms upon pretence of defending certain liberties which had been granted them during the reign of Barbarossa. This expedition proved tolerably successful to the Imperialists: but pope Gregory was so offended by some parts of Frederic's conduct, that he issued a new sentence of excommunication against him, and the empire was consequently involved in fresh distractions and calamities.

A.D. 1237.

Upon the elevation of Innocent IV. to the papacy, the German princes congratulated themselves on the prospect of returning tranquillity; but Frederic possessed more penetration, and observed that the cause of their rejoicing had deprived him of a cardinal's friendship, and entailed on him the hatred of a pope. The event soon justified this assertion; for, notwithstanding the zeal which Innocent had hitherto expressed for the emperor's interest, he soon avowed himself his enemy; caused the election of Conrade to be annulled in the council of Lyons; advised the nomination of Henry, landgrave of Thuringia, to supersede Conrade; and even procured a sentence

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of deposition against the emperor himself. On hearing of these transactions, Frederic placed the imperial diadem on his head, saying, "Before this deposition I was obedient to the pope and to the laws of the church: but, now that he has released me from my duty in that particular, I no longer owe him any respect, and will continue to be emperor in spite of all his exertions."

A.D. 1247. Henry of Thuringia being slain by an arrow at the siege of Ulm, the pope caused an assembly of the states to be held at Nuitz, where the title of "king of the Romans" was solemnly conferred upon William count of Holland. But several cities still retained their allegiance to the emperor and his son Conrade, notwithstanding all the exhortations and menaces of the Roman pontiff.

Meanwhile Frederic, who was busily employed at the siege of Parma, narrowly escaped the treachery of his enemies, who had bribed both his physician and his favorite chancellor to take him off by poison. He was, however, luckily apprised of their design, and his infamous servants received the just reward of their villainous purpose; for the physician was strangled by an executioner, and the chancellor, after being deprived of his eyes, dashed out his brains against a pillar, in order to elude the insults of the Pisans, who were his inveterate enemies. Soon after this event, Frederic was utterly defeated by the Parmesans, and was consequently obliged to retire to his kingdom of Naples, where he died of a fever, in the fifty-fifth year of his age and the thirty-fourth of his reign.

Frederic II. appears to have been a prince of great

great courage, genius, and fortitude, and might have been justly numbered with the most accomplished characters of his time, if the violence of his temper and his immoderate love of women had not hurried him into some irregularities which cast a stain upon his reputation. Even his enemies have acknowledged, that he was a munificent patron of literature, and that it was a fundamental maxim of his conduct, never to postpone any business till the morrow, which he could possibly discuss in the current day.

A. D. 1254.

Conrade was no sooner apprised of his father's death than he assumed the imperial title, and set out to take possession of his Italian dominions. He was, however, engaged in several quarrels with the court of Rome; and his life was soon terminated, either by sickness or the treachery of his enemies. He left one son, named Conradin; but as he was only three years of age, the Sicilian sceptre was usurped by Mainfroy prince of Tarentum; and the government of the empire was vested in William count of Holland, who had been elected king of the Romans during the reign of Frederic II.

William's accession was marked by two singular occurrences, which exposed him to the most imminent peril; for, soon after his marriage with the daughter of the duke of Brunswic, his palace was accidentally consumed by fire; and, during a temporary residence at Utrecht, he was so dangerously wounded with a stone from an unknown hand, that he narrowly escaped instant death. The coronation of this prince was performed at Aix-la-Chapelle with the express consent of the pope: but he found himself involved in a troublesome war with Margaret countess of Hainault,

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and his partisans were, for some time, unable to make any considerable progress against the noblemen who refused to acknowledge his authority. At length, however, he concluded a treaty with Margaret; conciliated the affection of the German princes, by various acts of kindness and munificence; and acquired great popularity by patronising an association of towns for the defence of their commerce, which, in those times of confusion, had suffered very severely from the depredations and oppressions of several petty noblemen, who resided in strong castles, and subsisted chiefly by rapine and plunder. This seems to have been the true epoch of the general union among the Hans Towns; though a similar treaty had long subsisted between Hamburg, Bremen, and Lubec.

A. D. 1256. After a crusade against the Russians, and the founding of Konigsberg by the Teutonic knights, William undertook an expedition against the Frizelanders, who had recently renounced their allegiance. But in attempting to reconnoitre the burg of Hochwend, without any attendants, his horse unfortunately sunk into a morass, and he became an easy prey to the enemy, who killed him without knowing his rank, and afterwards buried his remains in a burgher's house. Such was the sad catastrophe of a prince whose courage and accomplishments deserved a better fate.

Several assemblies were now convened for the purpose of electing a new emperor; but none of the princes were willing to undertake so weighty a charge. At length, however, Richard duke of Cornwall consented to accept the proffered dignity, and was solemnly crowned at Aix-la-Chapelle, notwithstanding the spirited opposition of

of a party who declared for Alphonso king of Castile.

A.D. 1258.

The new emperor had lavished such immense sums previously to his election, that he found his treasures totally exhausted, whilst making a tour through the cities of the empire; and the princes, after avowing that they had chosen him merely on account of his riches, sent him a formal renunciation of their allegiance. He was therefore compelled to abandon the government, and retire into England, where he ended his life.

For fifteen years after the abdication of this prince, Germany groaned beneath all the accumulated evils which usually attend an interregnum. No laws were observed; no order was maintained; but murder, theft, and rapine, were committed with impunity, and the constitutions of the empire were totally neglected. Sanguinary wars resulted from the feuds of private noblemen; bishops and clergymen, forgetful of their sacred character, embrued their hands in blood, for the augmentation of their benefices; commerce was almost annihilated; travelling was unsafe; and anarchy was completely and universally prevalent. The princes, indeed, convoked several assemblies: and Conradin, the son of Conrade IV., made some gallant exertions to retrieve his inheritance; but the measures of the former were rendered abortive by the obstinacy of the Roman pontiff; and the latter, being taken prisoner by Charles count of Anjou, was doomed to perish on a scaffold*. The

* Pope Clement is said to have advised Charles to this barbarous measure, by saying on his death-bed, "Conradi vita, Caroli mors: Caroli vita, Conradi mors."

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subsequent execution of Conrade prince of Antioch, terminated the illustrious race of Swabia; and Germany continued without a master till Gregory X. enforced the necessity of a speedy election; when Rodolphus count of Hapsburg was raised to the imperial throne.

CHAP. III.

From the Election of Rodolphus, to the Abdication of Charles V.

IN compliance with the injunctions of pope Gregory X., the princes of the empire assembled, in diet, at Frankfort; and, notwithstanding the remonstrance of Alphonso's embassador, and the pretensions of some other candidates to the imperial crown, elected Rodolphus, on account of his known prudence, and the brilliant reputation which he had acquired, by his bravery, on several important occasions. A. D. 1273.

On receiving information of this event, Rodolphus hastened to Frankfort, whence he was conducted to Aix-la-Chapelle, in order to be invested with the imperial crown: but when all things were prepared for the ceremony, it was discovered that the sceptre was wanting, without which, the princes could not receive the investiture of their respective fiefs. This circumstance occasioned much confusion, and the princes scrupled to take the accustomed oaths in an irregular manner: but the emperor immediately took a crucifix from the altar, saying, "This is the representation of Him by whom we were saved; let us use it instead of a sceptre." They agreed to this expedient, and the solemnity was performed with the crucifix accordingly.

The first care of Rodolphus was to put a stop to those acts of cruelty and depredation which had so

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long continued to be committed in Germany with impunity; and he exerted himself with such vigilance upon this occasion, that sixty castles, which had served as retreats to the banditti, were soon demolished; ninety-nine marauders were executed, at one time, in the city of Erfurt; and peace and security were eventually re-established. He then obtained a confirmation of his dignity from the pope, after promising to defend the holy see against all its enemies; and Alphonso of Castile was, soon afterward, persuaded to renounce his pretensions to the empire.

A. D. 1277. The emperor, having humbled some petty adventurers who had presumed to dispute his authority, marched into Austria against Ottocarus king of Bohemia, who had recently usurped that duchy, and had behaved with intolerable insolence. An accommodation, however, was effected; and his Bohemian majesty was persuaded to pay his homage in an inclosed pavilion on the island of Camberg: but, at the moment of the ceremony, the curtains of the pavilion suddenly fell to the ground, and discovered him at the feet of his lige lord. This mortifying accident, together with the instigations of his queen, induced Ottocarus to renounce his engagements; but he had no sooner taken up arms for the recovery of Austria, than he was defeated and slain by the Imperialists.

Rodolphus maintained his interests with the popes, by a truly dexterous policy. At an interview with Gregory X. he promised to lead an army into Palestine; and, at the desire of Nicholas III. his embassadors renewed his promise, in full consistery, at Rome; but he was enabled to dispense with these engagements; and his chancellor was empowered to treat with several of the Italian

cities

cities respecting their enfranchisement, as he preferred the receipt of their money to the alternative of making war upon them. He had been frequently requested to visit Rome, and to receive the imperial crown from the hands of his holiness; but he always declined the journey, and (alluding to the fable of the sick lion) replied, that many of his predecessors had gone to Italy, but that he had observed few of them to return without the loss either of their rights or authority.

After Rodolphus had swayed the imperial sceptre about eighteen years, he convoked a diet at Frankfort, and requested that the empire might be secured to his son Albert, duke of Austria, by creating him king of the Romans: but the princes excused themselves from complying with this proposal; and Rodolphus retired in disgust to Gemersheim, where he died, after a short illness, in the seventy-third year of his age.

This prince was justly renowned for his valour, sagacity, and love of justice; and by his sole conduct and courage, the empire was extricated from misery, and restored to the enjoyment of peace and opulence. He is said to have been tall in stature, with a small head, a pale complexion, and remarkably long nose. The following anecdotes are highly illustrative of his character.

Being one day at the chace, in the early part of his life, it began to rain with such violence as to render the road extremely dirty; when happening to meet an indigent curate who was carrying the Host to a sick person, he immediately alighted, and not only mounted the clergyman, but attended him, bare-headed, to the sick man's house, and afterward reconducted him to his church, where he received a solemn benediction, and was assured

assured that he should sit upon the imperial throne.

Some time after his elevation to the suprême dignity, a merchant complained to him of an innkeeper of Nuremberg, who refused to return a sum of money which he had deposited in his hands. Rodolphus, seeing the innkeeper soon afterwards, took an opportunity of praising his hat, and proposing an exchange. His proposal was naturally accepted, and he sent the hat as a token to the stranger's wife, desiring, in her husband's name, she would deliver to the bearer the money which a merchant had left in his hands. By this stratagem the plaintiff recovered his property, and the innkeeper was sentenced to pay a heavy fine.

Rodolphus had seven beautiful daughters, by means of whom he contracted alliances which proved highly advantageous to his posterity. He had also seven sons; but none of these survived him except the duke of Austria. In him began the good fortune of the house of Austria, of which he was the founder—a fortune which called forth the observation "that Venus was even more favourable to them than Mars."

A. D. 1292. After an interregnum of about nine months, a diet was held at Frankfort for the election of a new sovereign, and the princes were strongly solicited to give their suffrages in favor of the late emperor's son; but by the intrigues of Gerhard elector of Mentz, the majority declared for Adolphus of Nassau, who, although one of the poorest princes of the empire, was renowned for his military skill and bravery. He proved himself, however, unworthy of his new dignity; for, having injudiciously attached the

the count-palatine of Burgundy and the princes of Thuringia, his ill-success diminished his reputation: he also rendered himself odious to the people by violating his promises, and setting up his own will as a supreme law; and was publicly accused of having sacrificed helpless maidens, wives, widows, and even nuns, to his lust and cruelty. Accordingly the states declared him incapable of wearing the diadem; and, by a solemn act, transferred their allegiance to the duke of Austria. Upon the first intelligence of this transaction Adolphus advanced against his competitor, and singled him out in the heat of engagement; but victory rested on the sword of Albert, and the remains of the fallen emperor were deposited in the cloister of Frauenfelt, whence they were afterward removed to the imperial sepulchre by Henry of Luxemburg.

Albert I., surnamed the Triumphant, on account of the numerous victories he obtained over his enemies, was now elected and invested with the diadem at Aix-la-Chapelle: but it was not without great difficulty that he obtained the consent of pope Boniface VIII. to the performance of that ceremony. It appears that the Roman pontiff was highly exasperated at the conclusion of an alliance between Albert and Philip king of France; and that he carried his resentment against the former to an ungovernable pitch of fury; but, after some time, he agreed to an accommodation. A. D. 1298.

Upon the demise of Winceslaus the Younger, Albert raised a strong party in order to put the crown of Bohemia upon the head of his son Rodolphus, and even persuaded the widow of the late king to bestow her hand upon him in marriage.

Rodolphus, however, was soon taken off by a sudden death; and Henry count of Carinthia established himself so firmly on the throne, that Albert found it impossible to depose him. Some time after these transactions, the emperor espoused the cause of Philip de Nassau against Frederic and Dictmann, who had been disinherited by an unnatural father; but this flagrant piece of injustice was generally execrated; Frederic raised a numerous body of troops; and Albert was eventually compelled to retire from the sword of his young adversary. His chagrin on this occasion, however, was soon dissipated by the elevation of his nephew Charobert to the throne of Hungary.

Albert's conduct toward the Swiss was
A. D. 1307. exactly the reverse of his father's; for, though the latter had conciliated their affection by kindness and indulgence, and had uniformly defended their privileges against the nobles who attempted to infringe them, yet Albert wished to govern them as an absolute sovereign, and appointed governors who oppressed them in the most unfeeling manner. The three cantons of Ury, Switz, and Underwald, preferred several complaints and remonstrances to the emperor on the subject of their grievances: but as they found it impossible to obtain any redress, they took an early opportunity of shaking off the imperial yoke; and the other cantons soon engaged in a confederacy which laid the foundation of the Helvetic republic.

The emperor had six sons and three daughters; and the eagerness which he manifested to aggrandise his family cast a stain upon his reputation, and finally cost him his life. Being entrusted with the guardianship of his nephew John, son

of

of Rodolphus duke of Swabia, he took upon himself the administration of his dominions, and even hesitated to restore to him some castles which the young duke demanded. This conduct induced many of the German princes to suppose that Albert meant to appropriate his pupil's patrimony to the benefit of his own children; and John was so exasperated at the idea of such an injury, that he engaged three confederates to aid him in his purposed revenge. They accordingly fixed a time for the execution of their design, and assassinated the emperor on the bank of the Rhus, near Schaffhausen. One of the murderers, being apprehended, was broken alive upon the wheel; John, and another of his accomplices, lingered out a tedious life of penitentiary humiliation in a monastery; and the fourth assassin lived thirty-five years, as a cow-herd, in an obscure village, and did not discover his guilty secret till the hour of his dissolution.

Historians differ materially in their accounts of Albert; some describing him as an uncultivated and disgusting being, whose character was marked by brutality, and whose look alone inspired terror; and others affirming that he was a prince of great courage and extraordinary address, justly famed for a superior understanding, and remarkable for his inviolable attachment to truth. He equally detested slanderers and parasites, and expressed a peculiar respect for women of honour, men of courage, and pious ecclesiastics; but his virtues were tarnished by insatiable avarice.

Upon the first news of Albert's assassination, Philip the Fair, king of France, avowed his intention of becoming a candidate for the vacant throne; and even set out for A.D. 1308.

for Avignon, in order to request pope Clement V. to determine the suffrages in his favor: but the sovereign pontiff had sufficient cause to dread the elevation of a prince who might probably enforce the claims of his predecessors to Italy; and therefore wrote privately to the electors, urging them to nominate a chief, and assuring them that, unless they proceeded to the election immediately, the imperial dignity would revert from Germany to France. An assembly of the princes was accordingly held at Frankfort, and Henry of Luxemburg was unanimously chosen, on account of his known bravery and unblemished reputation.

A. D. 1309. Having been crowned, with the usual solemnities, at Aix-la-Chapelle, Henry made a progress along the Rhine, to receive the customary oaths of fidelity from the princes; and soon afterward convened an imperial diet at Spire, where sentence of death was pronounced against the murderers of the late emperor, and Albert's four sons were invested with the duchy of Austria. Upon this occasion, also, a marriage was solemnised between the emperor's son John, and the princess Elizabeth of Bohemia, by which means the crown of Bohemia became the property of the house of Luxemburg.

After chastising one of his refractory counts, and promulgating a decree for the expulsion of the Jews from all the provinces of Germany, the emperor set out on an expedition to Italy; where he received the submissions of several cities, and was solemnly crowned at Milan. The pope, however, took such offence at the arrival of a German army which seemed sufficient to re-establish the imperial authority, that he immediately formed a confederacy against his illustrious visitor, and urged

urged the inhabitants of Cremona, Brescia, Florence, and some other cities, to defend themselves with vigor.

Meanwhile, Guy de la Torre, being deprived of the government of Milan, resolved to take an ample revenge upon the emperor; and actually concerted a scheme for assassinating him, during the execution of a malefactor without the walls, which, it was supposed, would attract the curiosity of the Germans so much, that they would leave their master entirely unguarded. This plot, however, was privately revealed to the emperor, who caused the conspirators to be cut to pieces when they had assembled to execute their design; and the house of their chief was rased to the ground. Henry's chancellor was, soon after, convicted of a similar treachery: but instead of exculpating himself, he boldly declared that he had entered into the emperor's service with no other view but that of destroying him; and that he had poisoned several waggon-loads of wine destined for the German army, though his scheme had not taken effect. Henry, amazed at the villainy of this audacious traitor, ordered him to be burnt alive.

After reducing Cremona by force, and compelling Parma, Vicenza, and Placentia, to make peace upon reasonable conditions, Henry laid close siege to Brescia, which resisted all his efforts, for a considerable time, with astonishing firmness: but the inhabitants were at last reduced to such extremity, that they were compelled to appeal to his clemency, and presented themselves before him, barefoot with halters about their necks. This spectacle effectually appeased the resentment which had been excited in Henry's breast by the death of his brother Waleran, and the execution of fifty

German prisoners upon the walls; and he readily granted the supplicants their lives, on condition they should pay sixty thousand crowns, and deliver one hundred hostages. However, he ordered, their walls and fortifications to be demolished, and entered in triumph through the breach which his troops had made.

A.D. 1312. Though Henry was, for some time, amused by the dissimulation of Robert king of Naples, who had formed a strict alliance with the pope, he resolved to march toward Rome, in order to receive the imperial crown. Accordingly, he led his army thither with all possible expedition, and was crowned by some cardinals (who had received a commission for that purpose) in the church of St. John of Lateran, because the church of St. Peter was occupied by his enemies.

As the city of Rome was, at this period, distracted by two contending factions, the majority of the inhabitants rejoiced at Henry's arrival, as the only means of delivering them from the horrors of civil war; but when the emperor, instead of gratifying them with instances of his bounty, demanded money for the support of his troops, they broke out into open rebellion, and upwards of two thousand Imperialists were sacrificed to their tumultuary vengeance.

Finding it impossible to reduce his enemies at Rome, the emperor marched through the territory of Perugia, which he ravaged with fire and sword, and laid siege to Florence; but the inhabitants of that city defended themselves with such gallantry, that he was unable to obtain any advantage over them, and retired into winter quarters. In the ensuing spring, notwithstanding his ill state

of health, he engaged in an expedition against Robert king of Naples; but on his arrival at Buonconvento he died suddenly, and it was generally believed that a Florentine dominican had poisoned him in administering the sacrament.

Henry VII. was, at the time of his death, in the fifty-first year of his age, and the fifth of his reign. He was well made, though thin; his complexion was florid, and his hair brown. He possessed an appearance of majesty mingled with great complaisance; and he was generally beloved by his subjects, on account of his justice, piety, and valour.

During the subsequent interregnum, Germany groaned under all the miseries of plague and famine, by which whole towns were depopulated, and provinces brought to desolation. The rich sought an asylum in other countries, while the indigent perished without pity or assistance; wolves and other beasts of prey, compelled by hunger, quitted their dens, and, rushing into the villages, satiated themselves with human blood; cataracts of water, bursting from the mountains, swept trees and houses before them with dreadful impetuosity; and the earth was convulsed by frequent shocks, which seemed to agitate it from the centre.

These evils, however, were at length alleviated; and, notwithstanding the dangers which environed it, the imperial crown still excited the wishes and the efforts of ambition. Frederic of Austria, and Lewis of Bavaria, came forward as candidates for the supreme dignity; and each formed a party sufficiently strong to invest him with the insignia of royalty. Accordingly, a double

A. D. 1315.

double coronation took place, and the two emperors made the most vigorous efforts against each other for about seven years; but at the expiration of that time, Frederic was defeated and taken prisoner, and Lewis was solemnly recognised as lawful possessor of the throne.

Lewis had no sooner settled the affairs of Germany, than he exerted himself to appease pope John XXII., who had availed himself of the recent quarrels to gain possession of several domains, and to make various encroachments upon the imperial crown. But the haughty pontiff, instead of listening to proposals of an accommodation, published a bull, in which he asserted that the empire was a fief of the holy see, and that Lewis was an usurper of the supreme dignity. He even commanded the emperor to desist immediately from the administration of government; and enjoined all patriarchs, bishops, priests, nobles, and commoners, to withdraw or renounce their allegiance. Lewis protested against this bull, and requested that his holiness would suspend his censures until he could consult the states of the empire; but, at the expiration of three months, the pontiff had recourse to the ecclesiastical thunder; and actually negociated with some of the German princes for electing Charles the Fair, king of France, to the imperial dignity.

Notwithstanding this violent conduct, the pope found himself unable to effect his purpose; and perceived, with the utmost mortification, that a great majority of the Germans were resolved to defend the dignity of their sovereign, and the liberties of their constitution. Some disorders which had recently broke out in the empire were happily

happily hushed to silence; the populace were overjoyed at the liberation of the duke of Austria, who now renounced his pretensions to the throne; and Lewis contrived to render himself peculiarly agreeable to his nobles, by entertaining them with several magnificent tournaments. The pens of two famous authors were also successfully employed in defending the emperor's conduct, and exposing the injustice of the Roman pontiff.

Having convened a diet at Spire, and obtained some necessary supplies of troops and money, Lewis resolved to make an expedition into Italy, whither he had been strongly invited by the Ghibellines, and took a solemn oath that he would never return until he should have received the imperial crown at Rome. Upon this occasion, also, he ordered the pope to be excommunicated, as an heretic, unworthy of filling the apostolic chair. A. D. 1327.

On his arrival at Milan, he was crowned king of Italy by the bishop of Arezzo, as the archbishop of Milan refused to perform a ceremony which might incur the displeasure of his holiness. He then advanced into Tuscany; and, after reducing the city of Pisa, marched towards Rome, where he was received with all possible respect. The governor and senators came out to welcome his arrival; and, after the ceremony of his coronation, which was performed by the bishops of Venice and Aleria, the affection of the Romans was effectually conciliated by his liberality and courteous behaviour.

The pope, in the mean time, renewed his bulls of excommunication against the emperor, and treated him with such indignity, that Lewis lost

all patience, and swore to be revenged. Accordingly, he invoked an assembly at Rome, where John was degraded and condemned to death, as a person guilty of heresy and treason; and Pietro de Rainauci, a Cordelier, was solemnly invested with the papacy by the name of Nicholas V. Sentences of excommunication were now mutually fulminated by John and the anti-pope, and the former was actually burnt in effigy: but, after some time, the Romans became discontented; the Pisans reconciled themselves to the holy see; several other Italian cities renounced the emperor's party; and Nicholas, being compelled to submit to the superior power of his enemy, was stripped of his sacerdotal dignities, and doomed to perpetual imprisonment. His holiness then engaged in several new intrigues with the German princes, and with the king of Bohemia; but his measures were cut short by death, in the ninetieth year of his age, and the papal chair was filled by James Dufour, who assumed the name of Benedict XII.

A.D. 1336. Lewis, having quelled some disturbances in the empire, sent a submissive embassy to the new pope, who received them very graciously, and expressed an earnest desire of terminating the difference which had long subsisted between Germany and the see of Rome. But the pontiff's favorable intentions were defeated by the remonstrances of the French, Bohemian, and Neapolitan courts; and he was soon afterward persuaded to renounce the interests of Lewis, as those of an excommunicated heretic. Hereupon the German princes, assembling at Spire, declared the empire independent of the pope, and acknowledged Lewis of Bavaria lawful emperor; and in a subse-

subsequent diet at Frankfort, they enacted that famous constitution* by which the independence of the empire was for ever established.

Soon after these transactions, a spirit of fanaticism broke out in Alsace, and the lower class of people assembled under the banners of an innkeeper, called Armleder, who erected himself into a prophet, and persuaded his followers that it was their indispensable duty to revenge the death of Christ by an extirpation of the Jews. In obedience to this doctrine, which was first broached in Franconia, they massacred great multitudes of that unhappy nation; and in Alsace the carnage was so dreadful, that the Jews themselves augmented the horror of the scene; for, being driven to despair, they butchered their own wives and children, and then murdered themselves, to elude the cruelty of their inhuman enemies. After some time, however, the frantic herd of enthusiasts was driven out of the province; their sanguinary leader perished by the hands of the executioner; and the surviving Jews were permitted to live in peace.

After the termination of this unpleasant business, Lewis applied himself with great diligence to the regulation of the police, and the establishment of wholesome regulations for the preservation of public tranquillity. The mildness of his administration, united with his strict adherence to justice, effectually conciliated the esteem of his

* All the electors, except the king of Bohemia, declared by a solemn protestation, that whoever was elected king of the Romans by a majority of the princes, needed not the consent or confirmation of the holy see to assume the regal title, administer the laws, and govern the estates of the empire.

sub-

subjects; his court became numerous, splendid, and polite; and almost all the princes who had formerly thwarted his measures now sought his friendship.

A.D. 1343. Upon the demise of pope Benedict, Lewis made a fresh attempt to reconcile himself to the holy see: but Clement VI. was so far from acceding to any terms of accommodation, that he fulminated a new sentence of excommunication against the emperor, and prevailed on several of the electors to invest Charles of Luxemburg with the title of "king of the Romans." Lewis still possessed sufficient power to arrest the progress of his enemies: but whilst he was making the requisite preparations for revenging his wrongs, he was killed by a fall from his horse, in the thirty-second year of his reign.

This prince is said to have surpassed all his contemporaries, both in personal and mental accomplishments. His manners were gay and polished, and, although capable of concerting his measures without assistance, he willingly sought the aid of counsel. He appears also to have been famed for piety; for, notwithstanding the papal anathema, he received the appellation of "Most Christian," and the monks of Germany preserved his knives, napkins, &c. with religious veneration.

Charles IV. of Luxemburg, was grand-son of Henry VIII., and king of Bohemia in his mother's right. He received an excellent education at the court of Charles the Fair, king of France; and gave so many proofs of his valour upon subsequent occasions, that he was universally beloved by the Bohemians, who, upon his father's decease, declared him their lawful sovereign.

Shortly

Shortly after his elevation, he made formidable preparations against Lewis of Bavaria: but on receiving intelligence of that emperor's death, he exclaimed "Praised be God in the wonders of his providence, for having spared me an effusion of Christian blood, and deprived me of the opportunity of being avenged upon my enemies!" He then advanced into the heart of Germany, and was acknowledged as emperor by Ratisbon, Nuremberg, and twenty-four other imperial cities of the Rhine. A powerful faction was, indeed, formed against his authority, and two competitors appeared in the persons of Frederic landgrave of Thuringia, and Gunther count of Schwartzenburg; but both these noblemen were persuaded to relinquish their pretensions, and Charles received the imperial diadem, at Aix-la-Chapelle, with the general approbation of his new subjects. A. D. 1347.

The commencement of this reign was disturbed by an insurrection against the Jews, whom the blind populace considered as the authors of a dreadful pestilence, which ravaged the coasts of the Mediterranean, and diffused its contagion through Alsace, Swabia, Franconia, and some other provinces of the empire. The unfortunate sons of Israel, detested on the score of religion, and universally envied on account of their immense fortunes, were accused, at this juncture, of having poisoned the waters; and though the tortures of the rack extorted no confession, great numbers of them were poniarded, burnt, and drowned by the exasperated multitude. At Strasburg, the dregs of the people deposed their magistrates, and transferred their authority to a butcher, who caused two thousand Jews to be burnt alive, confiscated all

all their effects, and decreed that no individual of that nation should be admitted into the city for the term of one hundred years. Meanwhile the noblemen, who ought to have suppressed these infamous proceedings, rejoiced in the idea of obtaining a release from their heavy debts, and positively refused to check the spreading calamity, till the emperor promised that the sums due to the sufferers should never be demanded.

About this time, also, a taste for self-discipline became so general, that crowds of people of all ranks and conditions associated together, and abandoned themselves to the most cruel superstitions. Two hundred of these enthusiastic flagellants are said to have arrived in one day at Spire, where they stripped off their clothes, and whipped themselves with scourges pointed with iron. They lay upon the ground, and admitted none into their fraternity but such as had sufficient to maintain themselves during the time prescribed for their penance. They walked by twos and threes in procession, with their eyes fixed on the earth, crosses on their clothes and hats, and a rich standard carried before them. They continued their melancholy route even in the depth of winter; and their numbers augmented so rapidly, that it became absolutely necessary to suppress them. Accordingly, the emperor issued edicts against them; the princes refused to admit them into their dominions; and a papal fulmination eventually caused their dispersion.

A. D. 1355. After Charles had spent about seven years in arranging the affairs of the empire, he resolved to cross the Alps, according to an agreement which he had made with pope Innocent VI. Accordingly, he took a journey to Milan,

where he was crowned king of Lombardy; but it appears that the Italians treated him with great indifference: for, although he was invested with the imperial diadem at Rome, it was only by means of a procession from his camp, where he left all his troops, that he publicly entered the city; and it was with the utmost privacy of disguise, and attended only by a few of his nobles, that he visited the churches during the holy week, for the sake of obtaining the usual indulgences. Some of the Romans, indeed, offered him the government of their city as his hereditary right, and solicited him to re-establish their ancient liberties; but he left the place immediately, under pretence of hunting; and afterwards confirmed several promises which he had made to the pope, in direct opposition to the interests of his empire.

His pusillanimous conduct upon this occasion excited the resentment of the Germans, and the contempt of the Italians, insomuch that an attempt was made to burn him in his lodgings at Pisa; most of the cities attached to the empire shut their gates against him; and the famous poet Petrarch reproached him with great severity. But he persisted in his implicit obedience to the holy see; and the murmurs of his people were effectually counterbalanced by the fulsome adulation of Innocent and his interested dependents.

On his return to Germany, Charles convoked a diet, at Nuremburg, in order to make some necessary regulations respecting the future election of the emperors, and the number of electors. It was accordingly proposed, and unanimously resolved, that the form and ceremonies to be observed on those occasions, together with the number, rights, and privileges of

A.D. 1357.

of the electors should be written and published in the form of an edict. This was immediately reduced to execution; the epict received the name of the Golden Bull, from a golden seal called bulla; and the emperor prepared a magnificent entertainment, that he might have the pleasure of seeing the electors exercise their respective functions.

The city of Mentz was honoured with the first exhibition of the new ceremonial. Charles and his empress repaired, in their royal robes, to a magnificent stage which rose from the centre of the market place, and was loaded with the apparatus of a sumptuous banquet. The archbishops of Mentz, Triers, and Cologne, as high-chancellors of Germany, Gaul, and Italy, presented themselves on horseback, each having a seal depending from his neck, and a letter in his hand. From the farthest part of the market-place came up, at full gallop, the duke of Saxony, as chief marshal, bearing a silver measure of oats in his hand; and, as it was his province to regulate the precedency of his colleagues, he alighted, and assigned to each his proper station. The marquis of Brandenburg, grand-master of the palace, then poured out water for the emperor and empress to wash; the count palatine served up the repast in a service of gold; and the duke of Luxemburg, representative of the king of Bohemia in the office of chief butler, poured out wine for their majesties to drink. The marquis of Misnia and the count of Schwartzenburg, as chief huntsmen, exhibited the spectacle of the death of a stag and a bear; and the entertainment was concluded with a liberal distribution of presents.

After this solemnity, Charles applied himself

sedulously

sedulously to the encouragement of the liberal arts, the reformation of his clergy, and the impartial administration of justice; but he gradually sunk into a state of careless supineness, and paid so little attention to the affairs of his dominions, that the princes who were assembled at the baptism of his son Winceslaus, took the liberty of reproaching him with his neglect, and reminding him that he ought to have convoked diets and visited the provinces, in order to preserve due obedience and tranquillity: but, instead of acknowledging his fault, he merely asked whether he was bound to maintain an emperor in the provinces with the revenues of Bohemia.

It has been already observed that the revenue of the emperor, independent of his personal property, is very inadequate to the support of his dignity; but Charles knew how to indemnify himself: privileges of cities, rights of burghership, honors, favors, enfranchisements, and employments, were sold to the highest bidder; and his coffers were actually filled by the sale of the imperial jurisdictions in Italy. But, notwithstanding this reprehensible conduct, he succeeded in procuring the election of his son Winceslaus as king of the Romans. He undertook a journey to France, for the sole pleasure of revisiting a country for which he had ever entertained an affection; and, soon after his return to Prague, he was seized with a fever, which terminated his life in the thirty-second year of his reign.

Charles IV. seems to have been blest either with great abilities or extraordinary good fortune; for he was generally successful in his undertakings: and his munificence was so great, that notwithstanding his avidity for money, he was said to have

purchased the empire by wholesale, and retailed it out at a loss. He was strongly attached to his hereditary kingdom; and it is said, that when the princes of the empire solicited him to spend more time in Germany, he conducted them into his treasury, and, pointing to a profusion of gold and silver bullion, addressed them to this effect:— "The city of Prague gave me birth, and the kingdom of Bohemia furnishes me with these riches: were I more attached to Germany, I should be obliged, like you, to strip the eagle. You know very well how to deprive her of her feathers when she flies towards your quarters; and she might eventually make such reprisals that the wings of some of you would not grow again for a considerable length of time." Besides the Golden Bull, Charles enacted several salutary laws and constitutions; he also caused the tomb of the great Wittichind to be repaired and beautified, and ordered the feast of Charlemagne to be annually celebrated in the church of Aix-la-Chapelle.

A. D. 1378. Winceslaus was permitted to succeed his father in the empire, when he was scarcely seventeen years of age; and his first public act was designed to heal a schism of the church, which had been occasioned by the competition of the two pontiffs who had assumed the names of Urban VI. and Clement VII. But, notwithstanding his seeming attention to the interests of religion, he soon exhibited the most vicious inclinations, and abandoned himself to all kinds of licentiousness; while the provinces became an easy prey to banditti, and many cities were obliged to engage in associations for their mutual defence.

Nor was the new emperor only inattentive to the

the welfare of his subjects; but he even sold the rights of his empire, and expedited blank patents, signed and sealed, to be filled up at the pleasure of the purchasers, by which means the opulent were authorised to oppress the poor with impunity: commerce was totally stagnated; and civil wars began to break out in all parts of the country. The electors, and other princes, distressed by these disorders, and chagrined to see their empire without a head, sent an embassy to him, at Prague, beseeching that he would come and reside among them. But he merely replied: "Our dear embassadors! all the world knows that we are emperor; and if there be any person in Germany who wishes to see us, let him come to Bohemia, and we will freely give him audience." This was all the answer they could obtain; and the princes, seeing no prospect of their sovereign's reformation, adopted the resolution of governing by their own authority.

Whilst Germany was distracted by party feuds and public insurrections, Winceslaus continued at Bohemia, careless of his people's fate, and rioting in every species of debauchery. Two attempts were made to take him off by poison, but these failed in their effect, and entailed new miseries upon a wretched empire; for although his life was saved by the immediate aid of medicine, the poison left him affected with insatiable thirst; and he acquired an habit of drunkenness, which augmented his natural tyranny, and sometimes enflamed him to such a degree of fury, that it was dangerous to be near him. Among other acts of cruelty, he is said to have ordered his consort's confessor to be drowned, because he would not reveal the particulars of her confession; caused his

cook to be roasted alive, for having ill prepared a dish of meat; struck off the head of a common executioner, with whom he had contracted a disgraceful intimacy; and sentenced all the magistrates of the chief tribunal at Prague to be decapitated in a single day, without the formality of a trial.

A. D. 1396. Hitherto his misfortune had entitled him to some degree of compassion; and, notwithstanding his dangerous alienations of mind, he had found protectors among the princes of the empire: but the public patience was, at length, exhausted; and the grandees of Bohemia, with the consent of his brother Sigismund king of Hungary, caused him to be thrown into prison. After a close confinement of several months, he obtained permission to be conducted to the river, in order to refresh himself by bathing; and seized that opportunity of escaping, in a little boat, to a fortress on the opposite bank, which he had formerly erected to serve him as an asylum in case of emergency.

After mature deliberation, the senate resolved to make a fresh trial of their unfortunate prince, and he was permitted to reassume the reins of government: but his subsequent conduct accorded so ill with his promises, that his brother Sigismund, at the earnest desire of the Bohemians, accepted the title of regent, and caused the emperor to be closely confined at Vienna.

The royal prisoner again effected an escape, and still possessed sufficient friends to replace him on the throne. He even acted, in the sequel, an important part in public affairs; assisted at several imperial diets; laboured earnestly to heal the great western schism; and, in a visit to France, acquired the applause of the whole nation, though their

suffrages

suffrages were not easily won in favor of a foreign prince. However, he still continued to convert the imperial provinces into money; and his conduct, in this particular, gave such umbrage to the princes, that they solemnly deposed him, and elected Frederic duke of Brunswic to the supreme dignity. Winceslaus had peremptorily refused to make a renunciation of the empire; but he was so little mortified at the news of his deposition, that he exclaimed—"We are happy to be delivered from the burthen of the empire, because we shall have more leisure to attend to the government of our kingdom."

Subsequent to this period, his conduct was considerably amended, and he applied himself seriously to tranquillize some disturbances which had been excited by the introduction of theological controversies. The violence of his temper, however, remained unabated, and finally occasioned his death: for being suddenly alarmed by a tumult in the city of Prague, and one of his domestics imprudently saying that he had been apprised of this disturbance, Winceslaus flew upon him, pulled him to the ground by the hair of his head, and abandoned himself to such ungovernable fury, that he fell down in an apoplectic fit, and expired soon after, in the fifty-seventh year of his age. He reigned about twenty-two years over the Germanic empire; and entered twice into the connubial state, but deceased without issue.

Frederic of Brunswic being assassinated by a secret enemy, the electors conferred the sovereignty upon Robert count Palatine, and caused him to be solemnly consecrated in the church of Cologne. Some cities, however, persisted in their allegiance to Winceslaus; and A. D. 1400.

Aix-la-Chapelle suffered herself to be put under the ban of the empire, rather than admit his competitor within her walls. The new emperor had also to resist the interference of the Hungarian and Bohemian nobles, and of the king of France, in favor of the deposed monarch; but their efforts proceeded no farther than remonstrance; and, after a short time, he found himself in peaceable possession of the empire.

At the earnest solicitation of the electors, Robert undertook an expedition into Italy, in order to restore the affairs of that country to their former situation: but John Galeazzo, duke of Milan, harassed him in such a manner, that, notwithstanding some considerable reinforcements which he received from Austria, he found it impossible to achieve any advantage, and was soon compelled to return into Germany. The subsequent death of Galeazzo offered a more favorable opportunity of retrieving the imperial authority; but the electors of Mentz, Triers, and Cologne, refused to grant any subsidies for a second expedition, and Robert was consequently obliged to remain at home.

After chastising Bernard marquis of Baden, for having established tolls in his dominions, contrary to the regulations of the public peace, and witnessing the happy termination of a war between the city of Basil and the house of Austria, Robert solaced himself with the idea of having extinguished all the factions in Germany. But the elector of Mentz still contrived to vex and alarm him, by forming associations against the imperial authority; thwarting him in all the measures he took for terminating a schism in the church; and erecting a strong fortress at Horhst in open defiance of his orders. The emperor was highly incensed at

at these proceedings; and, after some time, determined to curb his enemy's insolence by force of arms: but this design was frustrated by a fever, which put a period to his life, in the ninth year of his reign.

This prince acquired the surname of Short, on account of his stature; but he was remarkably active and vigorous, possessed great penetration, and had made some progress in the study of literature. His reign was more distinguished by justice and clemency, than conspicuous for martial exploits; and the only blemish in his character was avarice. He left three daughters by his empress Elizabeth; and his remains were solemnly interred at Heidelberg, where he had founded an academy.

After the death of Robert, Josse marquis of Moravia was regularly elected at Frankfort: but his promotion was vigorously opposed by Sigismund, brother to Winceslaus; many of the imperial cities refused to take the customary oaths of allegiance; and death put a period to his authority, after he had worn the diadem about three months. A. D. 1411.

When Sigismund ascended the imperial throne, he was already possessed of experience acquired on that of Hungary, which he enjoyed in right of his consort. He had experienced many of the visissitudes of fortune; having been compelled to abandon his kingdon, and recalled; been thrown into confinement for his excessive vengeance, and again restored to liberty. His subsequent management of the Hungarian affairs gained him universal reputation; and the states of Germany universally agreed, that they could not place a more accomplished prince at their head.

Upon the first intelligence of his election, Sigismund set out for the empire, and resolved to employ his whole attention in remedying the grievances which had long prevailed in the provinces, and the schism which had, for thirty years, distracted the church. Accordingly, after effecting an accommodation between some hostile nobleman, and concluding a treaty with the king of Poland against the Teutonic Order, he concurred with pope John XXII. for convoking a council at Constance, and deliberating upon measures for definitively terminating the schism, and extinguishing the heresy of the Hussites.

John Huss, the founder of that sect, was a professor in the university of Prague, where he disseminated some doctrines which, like those of the English reformer Wickliffe, were calculated to undeceive the populace in many important articles of faith, and were consequently obnoxious to the Roman pontiff and his clergy. This person, and his zealous disciple Jerome of Prague, were both summoned to Constance, whither they repaired, under protection of a safe conduct granted by the emperor. They imagined that they had been called upon to explain their theological tenets: but the fathers of the council seemed disposed to condemn them unheard; and when John Huss offered to defend his conduct, they made so violent a noise that his voice could not possibly be distinguished. At length he was asked whether he would retract all his opinions; and, on his replying in the negative, he was immediately condemned to the flames, as a sower of sedition, an obstinate heretic, and a defender of Wickliffe. He was then stripped of his sacerdotal habit, and clothed with another dress; a paper mitre, painted with the

the representation of three devils, was put upon his head; and he was delivered over to the secular judge, who fixed the 6th of July for his execution.

On his arrival at the place of punishment, he was fastened to the stake, and surrounded with faggots of wood and bundles of straw. The duke of Bavaria, and the count of Papenheim earnestly exhorted him to recant; but he rejected their counsel with heroic fortitude, and died in full assurance of receiving the crown of martyrdom. His ashes were thrown into the Rhine; but his adherents dug up the earth on which he had suffered, and carried it to their houses with religious veneration. A. D. 1415.

The council decided the affair of the schism with equal rigor, by decreeing the abdication of John XXII., as tending to effect the restoration of peace, although that pontiff had been peculiarly favored by the emperor. John hesitated, for some time, to comply with their desire in this respect; but as they informed him that they could allege a sufficient number of charges to authorise his deposition, he quietly acquiesced in their sentence, and renounced the tiara. About the same time, Jerome of Prague, who had abjured his master's doctrines, was convicted of having espoused his former heresies; and was consequently sentenced to the flames. He behaved, upon that trying occasion, with manly constancy, and his martyrdom added new lustre to the dawning reformation.

Upon the demise of his brother Winceslaus *, Sigismund was invested with the Bohemian diadem; but he found his new A. D. 1420.

* The death of Winceslaus did not happen till this period; though we have given an earlier account of it, to preserve the history of the empire from confusion.

kingdom

kingdom involved in great disorders by the augmenting zeal of the reformers, who had been inflamed to a degree of ethusiastic rage, by the tyranny which had been exercised over their consciences, and who had now united into a formidable army under the conduct of an able general, named John Zisca.

The emperor deemed it advisable to crush the heretics by force of arms; and accordingly assembled a body of troops, in hopes of surprising them unawares in the territory of Pilsen: but the event did not answer his expectation. Zisca, knowing his inability to resist such superior force, posted his troops behind hedges, so that the imperial cavalry could not act without dismounting. Several women then advanced, by Zisca's order, from this kind of entrenchment, carrying bundles of linen rolled up in imitation of infants, whom they seemed to offer as hostages for their husbands; but, on their near approach, they shook out the pieces of linen on every side, and so successfully entangled them on the spurs and arms of their enemies, that they were thrown into complete confusion, and Zisca was enabled to obtain a decisive victory. This stratagem tended to raise the fame of the Hussite general; and Albert duke of Austria was, soon afterward, convinced of his military prowess.

Elated by this success, the insurgents bade defiance to opposition, and actually obtained several advantages over the emperor in person; and although the death of their leader involved them in a temporary consternation, their courage soon revived, and the skin of Zisca was stretched upon a drum, whose sound might animate them with the remembrance of his valour, and inspire them with

the

the notion that they still marched under his revered command. With the fury of maniacs they ravaged their native country, and rushed, like a resistless torrent, into Hungary, Poland, and Austria, where they were universally dreaded under the appellations of *Thaborites* and *Orphans*: — the former derived from mount Thabor, in the vicinage of Prague, which had long served them as a place of rendezvous; and the latter alluding to the loss of Zisca, whom they regretted with filial sorrow.

Procopius the Shaven was deemed a fit successor to the valiant Zisca; and under his auspices the Thaborites proceeded in such an uninterrupted course of victory, that the emperor was obliged to conclude a truce with them for three months. At the expiration of that time, however, hostilities were recommenced; and the insurgents, to the number of twenty thousand horse and thirty thousand foot, rushed into Misnia, Thuringia, and Franconia, which were successively abandoned to their relentless fury.

After several attempts to crush this insurrection had proved entirely fruitless, and the imperial forces had been frequently repulsed, a division broke out among the Hussites, and their strength was so considerably diminished, that Sigismund was soon enabled to reduce them to obedience; and those who escaped the avenging sword were successfully employed against the Turks. A. D. 1437.

Upon the termination of this sanguinary war, Sigismund regained the affection of his Bohemian subjects; but instead of improving that favorable juncture by lenient conduct and a mild administration, he seemed to redouble his zeal on behalf of the Roman pontiff; and used such rough measures to

to enforce obedience to the church, that he rendered himself an object of general detestation. Hereupon he resolved to quit the kingdom, and retire to some place where he might end his days in tranquillity; but before he could reduce this project to execution, he was attacked by a violent distemper, which seemed to have resulted from poison, and threatened his speedy dissolution.

The empress Barbara was no sooner apprised of her consort's danger, than she called a private assembly of the Bohemian nobles, and observed, that the only expedient for preserving the tranquillity of the kingdom, after Sigismund's decease, would be a regulation obliging the successor to accept her hand in marriage. This expedient was universally applauded, and a [illegible] agreement was made for putting it in execution. But, as these intrigues reached the ear of the emperor, he caused Barbara to be arrested; and, on his removal to Znaim in Moravia, he settled the succession in favor of his son-in-law, Albert duke of Austria. This was one of his last actions; for he died soon afterward, in the seventieth year of his age, having reigned fifty years in Hungary; twenty-seven in quality of emperor, and seventeen as king of Bohemia.

Sigismund was equally remarkable for his comeliness and majestic deportment: he was a liberal rewarder of literary merit; and his own learning was so extensive as to have gained him the epithet of "Light of the World." Though he neither wanted courage nor military skill, his martial expeditions were generally unsuccessful, and his exertions on the score of religion, or rather on that of the papacy, were evidently the effects of uncharitable zeal and blind superstition.

After

After his decease, Barbara abandoned herself so entirely to licentiousness, that she merited the appellation of "the Messalina of the North." She audaciously denied a future state, and took a particular pleasure in ridiculing nuns, and other persons of her own sex, who were restrained within the bounds of continence by what she termed a ridiculous modesty. In her widowhood, a lady reminding her of the example of the turtle, which, after losing its mate, never chooses another — "Wherefore," said she, "do you instance a bird which lives in solitude among the mountains? Rather quote to me the examples of pigeons and sparrows, who are always in our view, and whose pleaures suffer no interruption."

Albert II., surnamed the Grave and the Magnanimous, had acquired reputation previously to his elevation to the imperial throne. A. D. 1438. In the same year he was honoured with the crowns of Hungary, Bohemia, and Germany; Casimir of Poland, who had opposed his election, was compelled to bow before his resistless arms; and his general conduct, both in the field and the cabinet, was, in all respects, worthy of applause. But while his numerous subjects rejoiced in the contemplation of his accomplishments, and while his vigorous constitution promised many years of felicity, he died of an indigestion, caused by a quantity of cooling fruit, and his remains were solemnly interred at Weissenberg. Albert was of a tall stature, and extraordinary strength; he possessed the virtues of justice and munificence in a very eminent degree; and his name will ever be revered, on account of his zeal for religion and the true interests of his people.

After the demise of Albert, the electors

A. D. 1440. unanimously agreed to place Frederic of Austria upon the imperial throne; and he made some laudable exertions, in the commencement of his reign, for the regulation of the police, and an impartial administration of justice. He also strove to extinguish the schism which still continued to distract the church, and, at the council of Basil, he proposed terms of conciliation between the popes Felix and Eugenius; but as his propositions were totally disregarded, he left them to accommodate their differences as they thought proper.

Whilst Frederic was thus employed, his brother Albert, surnamed the Prodigal, being dissatisfied with his inheritance, levied an army, and raised the standard of rebellion: but as he found it an easier matter to raise troops than to maintain them, he deemed it advisable to come to an accommodation, and consented to lay down his arms upon the receipt of a considerable sum of money.

A subsequent rupture between the Swiss and Austrians involved the emperor in new difficulties, and induced him to crave the assistance of Charles VII. of France, after he had unsuccessfully applied to all the princes of the empire. Charles readily granted his request, and sent the dauphin, with forty thousand men into Germany, where he defeated the Swiss with prodigious slaughter: but the victorious troops committed such outrages in Alsace, that the states began to be seriously alarmed, and even threatened to take up arms against France. However this measure was prevented by negociation, and the dauphin retired to his father's dominions.

Upon

Upon the final termination of the schism, and the restoration of peace to Bohemia, Frederic was induced to make an expedition into Italy, where he expected to recover several states, and to re-establish the rights of the empire. Accordingly, he set out with a splendid retinue, and made his public entry into Venice with great magnificence. Previously to his departure from that city, a curious cupboard of glass was brought as a present from the inhabitants, and placed in his apartment; but he directed his jester to shake it off the table, and then observed, that if it had been made of *gold* it could not have been so easily destroyed: the hint was taken by the Venetians, and they afterwards brought him more acceptable presents.

From Venice he repaired to Florence, and thence to Sienna, where he gave audience to the pope's legates, and took a solemn oath to defend the rights of his holiness and the ecclesiatical territories. At Viterbo he was received with every demonstration of respect; but a tumult ensued on his approaching the palace, and both himself and his attendants were obliged to fall upon the crowd with their swords. At length, however, the rioters betook themselves to flight, and the governor threw several of their leaders into confinement; but Frederic graciously pardoned them, and obtained their release. He soon afterward proceeded to Rome, where he solemnized his nuptials with Eleonora, sister of the king of Portugal, and received the imperial diadem: but this was the only fruit of his journey, except refusals of submission, which he suffered to pass unpunished.

On his return to Austria, he found himself involved in very serious difficulties, by a ispute with the Hungarians, whom he had A. D. 1453.

had disobliged in detaining their young king, Ladislaus, at his court, and delaying to restore their crown and regalia, which were in his possession. The princes of the empire expressed their disapprobation of his conduct in pretty strong terms, and a number of Bohemians expostulated with him upon the same subject: but he continued to amuse them with evasions, till he was, at length, compelled by hostilities to sign an accommodation.

Meanwhile, the rapid conquests of the Mahometans in Greece, and the extinction of the Roman empire in the East by Mohammed II. excited a general alarm among the princes of Christendom, and induced them to unite their forces against so formidable an enemy. Diets were convoked, upon this occasion, at Ratisbon and Frankfort, and Carvajal, the pope's legate, preached up the necessity of a crusade with unremitting zeal and industry; but Frederic's natural indolence, and the feuds of the German nobility, frustrated all the schemes which had, for two years, been projected against the infidels.

After suffering much inquietude by the perpetual dissensions of his nobles, the refractory conduct of several of his neighbours, and the continual irruptions which the Turks made upon his frontiers, Frederic resolved to take another journey into Italy, in order to consult with pope Paul II. upon a probable method of engaging the Christian princes in a new association against the enemies of their religion, and to accomplish a vow which he pretended to have made, though he never explained himself upon that subject. He, accordingly, quitted Germany in the severest season of the year, and on Christmas eve arrived at Rome, where he was received by torch light. During his residence

residence in this city, he held several consultations with his holiness; but they produced no important effect.

On his return to Germany, he received intelligence that Charles duke of Burgundy had augmented his paternal inheritance by the addition of Zutphen and Guelderland; and that his ambition had prompted him to tamper with some of the electors, in hopes of being chosen king of the Romans. But, shortly after this discovery, Charles altered his scheme, and resolved to cultivate the friendship of the emperor, who, he supposed, might be easily persuaded to erect his duchy into a kingdom, and confer upon him the title of vicar of the empire in those parts. Having made this determination, he invited Frederic to an interview at Triers, and even prepared a throne, canopy, and regalia, for the expected ceremony; but when the emperor had received the homage which was to be the price of his consent, he departed, under pretence of urgent business, on the very day appointed for the coronation. D. A. 1471.

Having thus converted the duke's foible to his own advantage, Frederic contented himself with keeping an observant eye upon his motions: he saw him exhaust his strength in a war against his subjects, come to an open rupture with France, and perish in a combat with the Swiss, leaving an only daughter, Mary of Burgundy, who was reputed the richest heiress in Europe. This conjuncture was exactly suited to the wishes of the emperor, who gained over the Flemings, and persuaded them to bestow the hand of their duchess *

* This princess died about four years after her marriage, leaving behind her two children, who were baptized by the names of Philip and Margaret.

on

on his son Maximilian, whom he afterwards procured to be elected king of the Romans.

From this period he reposed upon Maximilian the chief weight of the government, though from a review of his conduct, it does not appear to have been a very heavy burthen upon his own shoulders. At the age of seventy-nine years he submitted to the amputation of an ulcerated leg; but the fever which followed that operation conducted him to the grave.

Frederic III. was a prince of an agreeable air and majestic countenance. He was plain in his apparel, moderate in his passions, and so remarkably abstemious that his life is said to have resembled a continual fast. From his natural aversion to war he was surnamed the Pacific, yet the inconstancy of his temper often prompted him to embark in a quarrel. He was endowed with a fund of low cunning, and a tenacious memory, but he appears to have been equally destitute of courage, resolution, and generosity. It must, however, be remarked, that he greatly aggrandised the wealth and power of the house of Austria.

A. D. 1493. Immediately after the performance of Frederic's obsequies, Maximilian was invested with the supreme dignity, by the unanimous consent of the electors; and brought with him to the throne all the qualities requisite to signalize a great prince; being equally adapted for the toils of the field, and the management of the cabinet. His childhood had been remarkably unpromising, and even at the age of ten years it was expected that he would be either dumb, or a perfect idiot: but this infirmity was gradually obviated, and he paid such unremitting attention to his

his studies, that he soon attracted general admiration.

Shortly after his elevation to the imperial throne, he was pressed to enter a second time into the conjugal state, and, after mature deliberation, he espoused Blanche Maria, sister to the duke of Milan, who was equally famed for her personal charms and amiable qualities. He then appointed his son Philip governor of the Low-countries; and convoked a diet at Worms, where he caused a constitution to be enacted for the preservation of the public tranquillity, and decreed that the imperial chamber, which had hitherto travelled about with the court, should be stationary.

Upon the reduction of Naples by Charles VIII., the emperor and the princes of Italy engaged in a league against that monarch, and their confederacy was joined by Ferdinand and Isabella of Spain. Maximilian embraced this favorable opportunity to propose a match, which afterwards took place, between his son Philip and the infanta Joanna, and which proved no less advantageous to the Austrian family than that of the emperor with the princess of Burgundy.

Meanwhile the king of France, hearing of the powerful league that was formed against him, set out from Naples to return to his own dominions; but on his arrival at the plain of Fornova, he found the allies drawn up to dispute his passage, and he was consequently obliged to give them battle. Fortune, however, favored his arms upon this occasion, and he pursued his route without further interruption.

Soon after these transactions, Ferdinand recovered the kingdom of Naples; and the emperor was earnestly solicited to march into Italy in order to

to frustrate the new designs of the French monarch. Maximilian readily acceded to this request, and crossed the Alps with a small body of troops; but his expedition proved altogether fruitless, and the generality of the Italians entertained but a contemptible opinion of his capacity and power.

Upon his return to Germany, the Frieslanders gave him fresh cause of vexation, by refusing to pay the ordinary tax imposed by the diet; and, instead of submitting to the person whom he appointed for their governor, they renounced all dependence upon the empire, and put themselves under the protection of Charles duke of Guelderland, who was then engaged in a war with Maximilian, in order to recover the investiture of his father. About the same time, Louis XII., having ascended the throne of France, avowed his intention of seizing Milan; and the emperor found it indispensably necessary to turn his arms against the Swiss, who had begun to make hostile irruptions into the Austrian territories, and had recently renewed their alliance with France.

Exasperated at the resistance of a people whom he affected to despise, Maximilian ordered a numerous army to rendezvous near Constance, whence they sallied out, in several small detachments, to pillage the castles and villages in the neighbourhood of Schaffhausen: but whilst they were thus employed, the enemy rushed upon them with irresistable fury, and put them all to the sword. A similar misfortune happened to a body of Swabians, who had plundered the cantons of St. Gall and Appenzel; for, whilst they were triumphing in their success, they fell into an ambuscade, and were cut to pieces. The emperor then

then repaired in person to Constance, and collected a body of forces consisting of about fifteen thousand men: but these, together with some powerful reinforcements, were ignominiously defeated by their warlike opponents, and Maximilian was eventually compelled to negociate a peace.

In the mean time, Louis XII., having subdued the Milanese, and compelled the king of Naples to resign his sovereignty, resolved to cultivate Maximilian's friendship, and actually demanded of that prince the investiture of Milan. The emperor was, at first, greatly averse to this proposal: but a pecuniary present, and the proposal of a match * between his grandson Charles and the princess Claudia, effectually conquered his reluctance. The projected alliance was, accordingly, negociated by cardinal d'Amboise, though the parties were then in their infancy, and a peace was concluded between the courts of France and Germany, by which the emperor granted the investiture of the Milanese, and Louis engaged to assist his ally against the Turks, maintain the rights of his successors to the kingdoms of Hungary and Bohemia, after the death of Ladislaus, and facilitate his coronation at Rome. A. D. 1501.

About three years after the conclusion of this treaty, a formidable insurrection broke out among the peasants of Germany; and this was immediately followed by a sanguinary conflict with Rupert count Palatine, who took up arms in order to gain possession of Bavaria, which had

* This treaty was, afterwards, opposed by the states of France; and the princess Claudia was given in marriage to Charles count of Angoulesme.

been

been bequeathed to him by his father-in-law, though the emperor would not confirm that disposition. During this war, the country was literally ravaged with fire and sword; but at the expiration of five months, Rupert died, and Maximilian ordered both parties to lay down their arms.

Meanwhile Philip, archduke of Austria, and titular king of Spain, was seized with a mortal illness at Burgos, and appointed Louis XII. tutor to his son Charles, notwithstanding the reason he had to doubt the integrity of that monarch: but this measure resulted from the inveterate hatred he bore to Ferdinand, and a supposition that the Flemings would never consent to acknowledge the emperor as regent. In this respect, however, Philip was mistaken, for the seventeen provinces, finding themselves involved in a dangerous war with the duke of Guelderland, deemed it advisable to yield the regency to Maximilian, who declared his daughter Margaret their governante.

Soon after this occurrence, Maximilian undertook an expedition into Italy, in order to oppose the progress of Louis, who was suspected of a design to enslave that country: but, being refused a passage through the valley of Trent, he was obliged to desist from his enterprize, after having sustained considerable loss in an engagement with Bartolomeo d'Alviano, general of the Venetian republic. And, as he was also disappointed of his coronation at Rome, he laid injunctions upon all the states of the empire, to give him the appellation of "Roman emperor elected"—a title which has since been assumed by all his successors.

The

The subsequent conclusion of a treaty of truce between Venice and Maximilian, gave such umbrage to the French monarch, that he immediately formed the project of a league, in order to divest the former of all the dominions she had usurped from the empire in Lombardy, from France and Spain in the Milanese and Apulia, and from the ecclesiastical state in Romagna. The emperor was so far from opposing this scheme, that he entered into it with the greatest cheerfulness; and the combined armies proved so successful, that the Venetians soon abandoned all their territories upon the continent, and were eventually reduced to such extremity that they sent a charte blanche to the emperor, and implored his clemency in the most submissive terms; but their application was rendered fruitless by the remonstrances of cardinal d'Amboise, who, about this time, received the investiture of Milan in the name of his royal master. A. D. 1509.

Louis had no sooner repassed the Alps, than the Venetians felt their courage revive, and actually retook several places which were garrisoned by the imperial troops. Maximilian, having received a powerful reinforcement, prepared to check their progress, at the head of eighty thousand men: but they defended themselves with uncommon resolution, and, by a capital stroke of policy, prevailed on the Roman pontiff to espouse their cause. At this time also the Florentines obtained an advantageous peace of the emperor, and, in consideration of forty thousand crowns of gold, he granted an amnesty for all their revolts, and confirmed their privileges in the most ample manner.

The attempt of pope Julius to negociate an accommodation proved entirely fruitless; and the combined

combined armies of France and Germany again prepared to fill the Italian states with carnage and consternation. They, accordingly, assembled in the neighbourhood of Verona, and crossing the Po, reduced a great number of places by storm. Their progress, however, was impeded by a misunderstanding between the generals, and it was deemed expedient to conclude a new treaty between the crowns, in consequence of which the armies acted with more vigor and unanimity.

Julius, finding it impossible to effect his designs by mediation, declared war against the French monarch, on pretence of his having refused to restore some towns which belonged to the holy see. Hereupon Louis convoked an assembly of his clergy, to enquire how far he ought to respect the power of the church, which the pope exercised so unjustly; and the assembly unanimously declared that he might repel an unjust attack by force of arms, and insist upon the common rights of mankind, according to the decrees of the council of Basil.

This declaration was not more agreeable to Louis than the emperor, who entertained the singular idea of procuring himself to be elected pope, and had actually resolved to borrow a large sum of money to purchase the votes of the cardinals. This scheme, however, he kept very secret from all but his most intimate friends.

Whilst the pope was employed against the duke of Ferrara, Louis and Maximilian sent embassadors to the king of Arragon, complaining of his conduct, and exhorting him to join their endeavours for the convocation of a council; but he answered very coldly upon both these subjects, and endeavoured, by private suggestions, to detach

tach Maximilian from the interest of France. His attempts, in that respect, were not altogether unsuccessful; for the emperor soon began to treat his ally with indifference, and eventually declared for his enemies.

Louis, being now entirely forsaken, was soon stripped of all his conquests in Italy, and found himself reduced to great extremities by an invasion of the Swiss and English; the latter of whom had denounced war against him at the instigation of Ferdinand, and joined the imperial forces in Picardy, where they obtained the decisive victory which is generally called the battle of the spurs.

Hostilities were carried on with various success till the demise of Louis; when his successor Francis I. negociated an accommodation with the emperor, and concluded a treaty of peace with Venice and England. The subsequent success of that prince in Italy alarmed Maximilian, and induced him to have recourse to arms; but he soon consented to make peace; and Francis remained in tranquil possession of his important conquests. A. D. 1515.

About this time, a circumstance occurred to give rise to the reformation, which was attended with the most important events through the whole empire of Germany. Leo X. published general indulgences, in order to raise money for the completion of his magnificent buildings at Rome; and the elector of Mentz authorised the Dominicans to receive the money, and preach up the merits of such a contribution. But the scandalous manner in which these pardons for all sins, present and to come, were disposed of, gave great offence to all religious persons, and induced Martin Luther, professor of divinity A. D. 1517.

divinity at Wirtemberg, to expose the absurdity of such odious traffic. His arguments were vigorously combated by John Thetzel, the papal agent; but they insensibly acquired great popularity, and made so much noise that other divines engaged in the controversy.

Both parties were now heated into the most violent altercation; and that which at first was disregarded as a petty quarrel began to assume so serious an appearance, that the pope thought proper to interfere, and, accordingly, cited Luther to appear at Rome within sixty days. The elector of Saxony, however, requested that the reformer might plead his cause in Germany, and Luther repaired, under protection of a safe conduct, to Augsburg; but, instead of making any recantation, he boldly avowed his resolution of defending his doctrines, though all the terrors of the church should be denounced against him. As the legate, however, proceeded to menaces, Luther retired privately from Augsburg, after having informed his holiness, by letter, of the harsh treatment he had received from cardinal Cajetan, who was justly accused of partiality toward his brethren the Dominicans.

In the mean time Maximilian exerted all his abilities to procure the election of his grandson Charles, who had recently taken possession of the Spanish diadem: but, as there was no precedent for nominating a king of the Romans previously to the emperor's coronation at Rome, he could not obtain the gratification of his desire. This disappointment seems to have preyed upon his spirits; for he was, soon afterwards, attacked with a fever, which, being augmented by immoderate exercise and an improper regimen, brought him

to the grave, in the sixtieth year of his age, and the twenty-sixth of his reign.

Maximilian was a prince of a very agreeable appearance, and so modest that none of his attendants ever saw him without proper covering. He possessed a strong passion for literature, and had so tenacious a memory, that he never forgot the names of persons whom he had once seen, or heard mentioned. His liberality involved him in many difficulties; and his love of hunting exposed him to the most imminent danger; for, by his temerity in that exercise, he frequently engaged himself among the hanging precipices, and continued in that dreadful situation till the mountaineers could contrive to lower him down with cords. Yet, notwithstanding his bravery, munificence, and other good qualities, he was so extremely irresolute, that many of his most important projects miscarried, and his reign makes but an indifferent figure in the annals of Germany. His remains were interred, by his own desire, at Neustadt in the circle of Austria.

Charles V., son of Philip king of Castile, and Joanna, heiress of Ferdinand the Catholic, was born at Ghent in Flanders; and passed the greatest part of his infancy under the care of his aunt Margaret, governante of the Low-countries, and with the widow of Charles duke of Burgundy. He might be said to have served an apprenticeship to the art of government in the administration of Flanders, which devolved upon him by the death of his father; and his talents found considerable employment in Spain, where, on account of his mother's insanity, he assumed the management of affairs before her death.

 Upon

A. D. 1520. Upon the first intelligence of his grandfather's death, Charles presented himself as a candidate for the imperial throne, and (as his partisans observed) the extensive territories of the house of Austria, the rich sovereignty of Franche Compté and the Netherlands, and the entire possession of Spain and Sicily, all united to hold him up to the first dignity among Christian princes. But Francis I. declared himself a competitor, and with no less confidence of success than Charles. He trusted to his superior years and experience; and urged, as a peculiar recommendation, that the French cavalry when united to the German infantry would not only form an irresistible barrier against invasion, but might also prove sufficient to crush the augmenting power of the Turks.

Both these claims were certainly plausible, yet both were rejected; and the electors made a tender of their diadem to Frederic, surnamed the Wise, duke of Saxony. But he was so far from being dazzled by its splendor that he rejected it with noble firmness, and insisted on the expediency of raising Charles to the supreme dignity. "In times of tranquillity," said the magnanimous duke, "we wish for an emperor who has no power to curtail our liberties; times of danger demand one who is able to maintain our safety. The Ottoman forces, led by a martial and victorious prince, are now assembling, and are ready to pour in upon our empire with a violence unknown in former ages. New conjectures call for fresh expedients. The imperial sceptre must be placed in some hand more powerful than mine, or that of any other German prince. We possess neither

neither dominions, revenues, nor authority sufficient to encounter so formidable an enemy. Recourse must, therefore, be had to one of the royal competitors. Each of them can certainly raise forces for our defence: but as the king of Spain is of German extraction, as he is a prince of the empire by the territories which descend to him from his grandfather, and as his dominions stretch along that frontier which lies most exposed to the enemy, his claim, in my opinion, is preferable to that of Francis, who, notwithstanding his extensive power, is a stranger to our language, our customs, and our country." This well-timed speech made a deep impression on the minds of the electors, and Charles was soon afterward invested with the imperial crown at Aix-la-Chapelle.

The first act of Charles's administration was to appoint an imperial diet to be held at Worms, in order to concert measures for checking the progress of Luther's opinions, which were represented as inimical to the peace of Germany, and subversive of the established religion. Luther appeared at that assembly, under protection of a safe conduct, and, being asked whether he would retract or defend the doctrines he had recently promulgated, he insisted upon the truth of what he had advanced, and resisted, with equal firmness, the persuasions and remonstrances of those who tampered with him in private. Some of the members of the diet were highly incensed at his perseverance, and urged the emperor to violate the safe conduct which he had granted; but Charles rejected this advice with proper disdain, and reminded them, "that if good faith were banished from all the rest of the world, it ought

A. D. 1521.

ought to find an asylum in the palaces of princes." Luther was, therefore, permitted to retire in safety, though he was, at the same time, condemned and proscribed, by public edict, as an impious heretic, who had broached the most pernicious doctrines. About this time the constitution was enacted by which Germany was divided into ten circles.

Previously to the decision of the electors respecting an emperor, Charles and Francis had conducted their rivalship without enmity; and had even mingled in their competition many expressions of friendly regard. Francis, in particular, declared that his brother Charles and he were openly suitors to the same mistress: "The most fortunate," added he, "will gain her, and the other must rest contented." But the glittering prize was no sooner adjudged, than the French monarch discovered all the passions natural to disappointed ambition; and a spirit of jealousy was kindled between those two great princes which involved them in frequent hostilities, and kept their whole age in motion.

Meanwhile the Spaniards, chagrined at the departure of their sovereign, and exasperated by the avarice of the Flemings, who had lately presided at the helm of government, entered into an association, which they called The Sancta Juncta; and the sword was appealed to as a means of redress. Francis considered this as a favorable conjuncture for reinstating the family of John d'Albert in the sovereignty of Navarre; and a French army was immediately sent out under the command of Andrew de Foix, whose exertions were, at first, crowned with great success: but on his rashly penetrating into Castile he was defeated and

and taken prisoner; and Navarre was recovered in a shorter time than he had spent in reducing it.

Soon after this event, Francis encouraged the duke of Bouillon to make war upon the emperor, and to invade Luxemberg; but this insult was soon chastised by the imperial forces: and the French king, who had broken into the Low-countries, lost an opportunity of gaining a complete victory. During these operations a congress was held at Calais, under the mediation of Henry VIII., king of England; but this proved entirely unsuccessful; and a league was soon afterward concluded between the pope, the emperor, and the English monarch, against France.

In the mean time, the Milanese, weary of the exactions of mareschal de Lautrec, resolved to expel the French troops, and put themselves under the protection of Francis Sforza, brother to Maximilian their late duke. This design was entirely approved by his holiness, who thundered out an excommunication against Lautrec, and took into his pay a numerous body of Swiss. The papal army, commanded by Prosper Colonna, received a powerful reinforcement from Germany; the city of Milan was betrayed to the confederates; Parma and Placentia were united to the ecclesiastical state; and of all their conquests in Lombardy, only the castle of Milan, the town of Cremona, and some inconsiderable forts, remained in the hands of the French.

Pope Leo X. received the news of this brilliant success with such immoderate transport, as brought on a fever and occasioned his death. By this accident the spirit of the confederacy was broken, and its operations suspended. The Swiss were imme-

immediately recalled; some other mercenaries disbanded for want of pay; and only the Spaniards and a few Germans remained to defend the Milanese. Lautrec, who had taken refuge in the territories of Venice, was anxious to improve so favorable an opportunity; but all his efforts were frustrated by the vigilance and ability of Colonna.

During these transactions, much discord prevailed at Rome respecting the election of a successor to Leo X. Cardinal Wolsey had long relied on the emperor's interest; and Julio de Medici, Leo's nephew, thought himself sure of the tiara; but both these candidates were set aside, and cardinal Adrian, who at that time governed in the emperor's name, was unanimously raised to the papal chair, to the great disgust of the Italians, and the astonishment of all Europe.

Roused by the augmenting power of his rival, Francis determined to make a vigorous exertion for the recovery of Lombardy; and, accordingly, sent a reinforcement of ten thousand Swiss to Lautrec. The French commander was now in a condition to act offensively, and actually advanced within a few miles of the city of Milan: but his new auxiliaries growing mutinous, he was obliged to attack the imperialists at Biocca, where he was defeated with prodigious slaughter. He was consequently obliged to retire into France; while Colonna effected the reduction of Genoa, and effectually re-established the imperial authority.

Whilst an English army, under the earl of Surry, made an unsuccessful descent on the coast of France, and the emperor was fully employed in tranquillizing the Spanish dominions, Solyman the Magnificent made an irruption into Hungary, and reduced

reduced Belgrade. He then turned his arms against the island of Rhodes, and, after an obstinate siege of six months, added that important place to his former conquests. Charles and Francis were equally ashamed of having neglected the relief of an island which was generally considered as the great bulwark of Christendom in the east; and the emperor, by way of reparation, granted to the knights of St. John the small island of Malta, where they fixed their residence, and continued long to retain their ancient spirit, though much diminished in strength and splendor.

Adrian VI., though devoted to the interests of the emperor, endeavoured to assume the impartiality which became his pontifical character, and laboured to effect a reconciliation between the contending princes. The Italian states were also disposed to peace; and so much regard was paid to the pope's proposal of a truce for three years, that the Imperial, French, and English embassadors, at Rome, were empowered to treat upon that subject; but whilst they were employed in fruitless negociations, their sovereigns were continuing hostile preparations, and the confederacy against Francis became more powerful than ever. The Venetians, who had hitherto espoused the French interest, formed engagements with the emperor for securing the Milanese to Francis Sforza; the Florentines, the dukes of Ferrara and Mantua, and all the Italian powers, acceded to the same alliance; while the emperor undertook the invasion of Guienne, the forces of England and the Netherlands hovered about Picardy, and a numerous body of Germans was appointed to ravage Burgundy.

Although

A. D. 1554. Although the enemies of France had thus carried the war into the very bowels of that kingdom, Francis still retained his natural courage, and determined even at this perilous crisis, to make a fresh attempt for the recovery of the Milanese. Accordingly he sent an army of thirty thousand men across the Alps, under the command of general Bonnivet. Colonna was in no condition to resist so formidable an enemy; and the duchy of Milan might have been easily reduced, had not Bonnivet wasted his time in unimportant enterprises, till the inhabitants recovered from their consternation. By his imprudent conduct, in this respect, his own army was greatly diminished, while that of the confederates received powerful succours, and he was compelled to make an ignominious retreat, after losing his bravest troops in an engagement at Biagrassa. Francis having defended his native kingdom with astonishing success, resolved to march in person against the Milanese, in order to wipe off the disgrace of Bonnivet's expedition; but, although he obtained several important advantages, he was eventually defeated, and taken prisoner at the siege of Pavia; Milan was instantly abandoned; and after a few weeks there was scarcely a Frenchman left in Italy.

Whatever joy the emperor might have felt at this event, he concealed his real sensations, and forbade any public rejoicing to be made in his dominions; observing, that all victories gained over fellow-christians were rather objects of mourning than of mirth. His confessor, believing that he spoke the language of his heart, exhorted him to release his illustrious captive without

out ransom, as such an act of generosity would transmit his name with immortal glory to posterity, and the French monarch would thus be necessarily attached to his interests in future, by the strongest ties of gratitude. But, instead of following this advice, Charles suffered his unfortunate rival to remain in close confinement, and proposed such severe terms as the price of his liberty, that he was with difficulty restrained from putting a period to his own existence. At length, however, the emperor thought proper to abate a part of his exorbitant demands, and Francis was removed to Madrid, where he obtained his liberty on condition of ceding Burgundy, and some other territories, to his conqueror, and delivering up his two sons, the dauphin of France, and the duke of Orleans, as hostages for the performance of the treaty. He had, however, no sooner returned to his own dominions, than he protested against his recent agreement, as a compulsory act, and announced his intention of renewing the operations of war.

Francis was supported in this conduct, by the courts of Rome and England; and a formidable confederacy, called the "Holy League," was soon afterward formed, to curb the dangerous power of the emperor, to enforce the liberation of Francis's sons on the payment of a reasonable ransom, and to re-establish Sforza in the duchy of Milan.

In consequence of this league, Italy once more became the seat of war, and the confederate army entertained the most brilliant hopes of success: but Francis, who it was expected would have infused vigour into the whole body, had passed through such a scene of distress, that he was

was become diffident of his abilities, and distrustful of his fortune. He flattered himself that the mere name of such a confederacy would induce Charles to listen to terms of accommodation, and under this mistaken idea, neglected to send reinforcements to his allies in Italy. Meanwhile the duke of Bourbon, who commanded the Imperialists, reduced the whole of the Milanese, and led his victorious forces to the plunder of Rome. His attempt upon that city, cost him his life; but his followers soon scaled the walls, sacrificed many of the unfortunate inhabitants to their resentment, and confined the sovereign pontiff in the castle of St. Angelo. Charles received the news of these transactions with his accustomed dissimulation, and even ordered his clergy to offer up prayers in their churches for the pope's liberation; though he determined to prolong his captivity till he should pay an enormous ransom, and surrender all the places of strength in the ecclesiastical dominions.

A.D. 1529. The kings of France and England had, previously to the sacking of Rome, agreed to invade the Low-countries with a powerful army; but on the first intimation of the pope's misfortune, they transferred the theatre of the projected war to Italy; and Clement obtained his liberty. But though the confederates were successful at the opening of the campaign, their fortune was suddenly changed by some untoward accidents; and Francis was so effectually discouraged, that he began to turn his thoughts toward a pacification. Charles, on the other hand, was anxious to return into Germany, where his presence was absolutely necessary; and after some time, an accommodation was negociated at Cambray, by which Francis consented to resign all his claims

claims to Lombardy, Flanders, and Artois, and to pay two millions of crowns as the ransom of his sons, and the emperor ceased to demand the restitution of Burgundy. Charles also, about the same time, concluded a peace with the pope; and having been crowned by his holiness at Bologna, he returned into the empire.

As Germany had, during the late wars, been totally distracted by the contentions of the Catholics and Lutherans, Charles took an early opportunity to convoke a diet at Augsburg, in order to stop the spreading of the new tenets, which he had been taught to consider as impious and heretical. The Lutherans, however, boldly desired him to peruse a confession of their faith, and withstood all his remonstrances with such firmness, that the diet was adjourned without coming to an absolute decision. Some time afterward, the emperor, on hearing that the Protestants * were dissatisfied with this prorogation, prohibited the exercise of any other religion than that of Popery, on pain of corporal punishment and confiscation of goods. But this decree, instead of intimidating the friends of the Reformation, induced them to enter into an association of mutual defence against any attacks on account of their religion.

During these transactions, Charles made some vigorous exertions for securing the imperial dignity to his brother Ferdinand, who had recently ascended the throne of Hungary; and, notwithstanding the spirited remonstrances of the Pro-

* The Lutherans acquired this appellation from protesting against a decree of a diet at Spire, which was held in presence of the archduke Ferdinand, brother of the emperor.

testant princes; he procured him to be elected king of the Romans. This measure gave great offence to the elector of Saxony and his confederates, and Germany appeared to be threatened with the horrors of a civil war, but the dread of foreign invasion induced both parties to unite in defence of their country, and an accommodation was concluded, by which the emperor promised to suspend all sentences pronounced in religious causes for a certain time, and the Lutherans engaged to afford immediate assistance against the Turks.

Charles had at this time received intelligence that the armies of that nation were advancing in prodigious numbers toward Stiria, that fifteen thousand cavalry were already penetrated as far as Lintz, and that Solyman had crossed the Danube in person at Belgrade. But the treaty of accommodation with the Protestants had produced such general unanimity, that both sects appeared to arm through emulation, and the emperor soon found himself at the head of a hundred and twenty thousand men. With these he marched against the invaders; and had either he or Solyman dared to hazard a general engagement, it would probably have been decisive of the fate of two great empires: but both the emperors seem to have entertained fears of each other's power, and they took the earliest opportunity of retreating to their respective dominions.

A. D. 1536. After making some unsuccessful exertions against the Reformers, Charles fitted out a powerful armament, and undertook an expedition into Barbary, in order to reinstate Muley Hassein, the exiled king of Tunis, upon his throne; and to chastise the insolence of Barbarossa,

barossa, who continually infested the coasts of Spain and Sicily. He accordingly set sail with a numerous fleet, and his design was so well conducted, that in a short time he reduced the city of Tunis, and the fortress of Goletta; liberated a great number of Christian slaves; defeated the corsair both by sea and land; and restored Muley Hassein to the sovereignty, after that prince had acknowledged himself his vassal, and engaged to support a Spanish garrison in the Goletta.

The king of France took advantage of the emperor's absence, to revive his pretensions to Italy; and though unsupported by any ally, he raised a formidable army, under pretence of chastising the duke of Milan for a breach of the law of nations, in putting to death his embassador. Instead, however, of marching directly to the Milanese, he commenced hostilities against the duke of Savoy, with whom he had some cause of dissatisfaction; and in the course of a single campaign stripped him of all his dominions, except the province of Piedmont. In this exigence the unfortunate duke applied to Charles for protection; and, as his calamities were chiefly occasioned by his attachment to the imperial interest, he naturally expected immediate assistance; but the emperor, who had just returned from his African expedition, was unable either to march to his relief, or to send him the necessary succours.

In the mean time, the death of Sforza duke of Milan totally changed the nature of the war, and afforded Charles full leisure to prepare for taking an active part in the contest. The pretext of the king of France for taking up arms was now removed, but as Sforza had died without issue, all

the rights which had been added to him and his descendants reverted now to his enemy.

Had Francis, at this juncture, enforced his claim at the head of his army, Milan must have immediately submitted to his authority; but, by an accountable fatality, he wasted his time in fruitless negociations, while his more politic rival took possession of the duchy, as a vacant fief of the empire, and even formed a project for the subversion of the French monarchy.

Upon this occasion Charles appears to have been too sanguine. Having chased the forces of his enemy out of Savoy, he led an army of fifty thousand men to invade the southern provinces of France, while two formidable detachments were ordered to make an irruption into Champagne and Picardy. Francis was naturally alarmed at this invasion; but he prudently resolved to remain entirely upon the defensive, and to deprive the enemy of subsistence, by laying waste the country before them. The mareschal Montmorency, who was entrusted with the execution of this plan, assembled a considerable body of forces at the confluence of the Rhone and Durance; while Francis, with another army, encamped at Valence, higher up the Rhone. Arles and Marseilles were furnished with strong garrisons, but the other frontier towns were evacuated; such fortifications as might have afforded shelter to the enemy were demolished; corn, forage, and provisions of every kind, were carried off; and the country was literally changed into a vast desert, from the Alps to Marseilles, and from the sea to the confines of Dauphiny.

Charles was much chagrined at the unexpected difficulties

difficulties which presented themselves to his view; but he still persisted in his resolution, and endeavoured to revive the sinking hopes of his officers, by liberal promises of lands and honours in France. He accordingly undertook the siege of Marseilles, and used his utmost exertions to draw Montmorency from his camp at Avignon; but, at the expiration of two months, he found it impossible to obtain any advantage, and was, consequently, obliged to order a retreat. The invasion of Picardy was equally unsuccessful.

The king of France now abandoned himself to that vain resentment which had formerly tarnished the reputation of his rival. They had frequently, in the course of their quarrels, given each other the lie, and Charles had even challenged his enemy to single combat, and accused him at Rome of perfidy and breach of faith. Francis now exceeded in the indecency of his accusations: the death of the dauphin was imputed to poison; and some obscure hints extorted from one Monteculi, by the tortures of the rack, were deemed sufficient to criminate the emperor; though it was evident to all Europe that neither Charles nor his ministers could have any inducement to perpetrate such a detestable crime, as Francis was still in the vigor of life, and had two sons besides the dauphin grown up to years of maturity.

Not satisfied with this injurious aspersion, Francis went in person to the parliament of Paris, and caused the advocate-general to accuse Charles of Austria (meaning the emperor) of having violated the treaty of Cambray, by which he was freed from the homage due to the crown of France for Artois and Flanders. The inference drawn from this charge imported, that, the treaty being

now void, he had been guilty of rebellion in taking arms against his liege lord; and Charles was actually summoned to appear before the parliament of Paris.

As this proceeding failed of its effect, and no person appeared, at the appointed time, from the imperial court, the parliament gave judgment that the counties of Flanders and Artois were forfeited by rebellion; and Francis marched into the Low-countries, as if he had designed to reunite those fiefs, by force of arms, to his crown: but a suspension of arms was effected by the interposition of the queens of France and Hungary, and a truce was, soon afterwards, concluded at Nice, through the mediation of pope Paul III. a man of a venerable character, and pacific disposition. A few days after signing the truce, Charles was driven, by contrary winds, on the coast of Provence, and was received by Francis with the warmest demonstrations of esteem and affection. Mutual visits were paid with an equal degree of confidence; and the powerful rivals, who had accused each other of every kind of baseness, conversed together with the cordiality of brothers.

A.D. 1540. Whilst the emperor was employed in regulating the affairs of Spain, the citizens of Ghent broke out into rebellion, on account of a tax which they judged contrary to their ancient privileges. Sensible, however, of their inability to resist the force which would inevitably be sent against them, they implored the protection of the French monarch, offering to put him in immediate possession of their city, and to assist him in recovering such provinces of the Netherlands as had formerly belonged to his crown. But Francis, forgetful of his past injuries, rejected these propositions,

propositions, and communicated the whole negociation to the emperor.

By this generous proceeding, Francis hoped to obtain the investiture of Milan, and the emperor flattered him in that apprehension for his own interested purposes. His presence being necessary in the Netherlands, Charles demanded a passage through France; and was received in that kingdom with every mark of respect. The dauphin and the duke of Orleans offered to go into Spain, as hostages for his security; the king entertained him at Paris with the utmost magnificence; and the young princes, whose generous offer had been refused with due acknowledgment, accompanied him to the frontiers of the Low-countries, yet he still found means to evade his promise relative to the investiture of the Milanese.

The rebellious citizens of Ghent were no sooner apprised of their emperor's arrival, than they sent a solemn embassy to deprecate his wrath; but he was deaf to their entreaties, and entered the place of his nativity at the head of a formidable army, as if it had been a hostile city taken by assault. Twenty-six of the principal burghers were executed, as ringleaders of the sedition, a greater number were banished, the town was deprived of its artillery, arms, and privileges, and the unfortunate inhabitants were compelled to pay a fine of one million two hundred thousand crowns for the erection of a citadel and the support of a garrison, which might operate as a future check upon their mutinous disposition.

Having thus re-established his authority in the Low-countries, Charles was obliged to turn his attention toward the affairs of Germany. The Protestants, having made several fruitless applica-

tions

tions for a general council, entreated him to appoint a conference between a select number of divines of each party, in order to examine those points which had been so long and vigorously contested. After mature deliberation, the emperor acceded to this request, and a conference was held, with great solemnity, at Ratisbon: but the ecclesiastics chosen to manage the controversy were only able to settle a few speculative opinions, and the diet was adjourned to a future period.

A. D. 1541. About this time, Charles received the vexatious intelligence of a great revolution which had happened in Hungary, to the detriment of his brother's power, and the aggrandisement of the infidels. However, his well-timed concessions to the Protestants were productive of such ample supplies, both of men and money, as left him under little anxiety about the safety of Germany. He therefore hastened to execute a favorite project which he had concerted against Algiers, and set sail, with a formidable fleet, for the coast of Barbary; but the weather proved so extremely tempestuous, and the Algerines defended themselves with such extraordinary gallantry, that he was eventually compelled to abandon his design. It is said that the famous Hernando Cortez, who conquered Mexico, offered, on the forfeiture of his life, to return and take Algiers; but this proposal was rejected, and the emperor returned to his own dominions, extremely mortified at his reverse of fortune.

The loss which Charles sustained in this unfortunate expedition encouraged the king of France to begin hostilities, on which he had for some time resolved, in order to chastise the emperor for his duplicity relative to the investiture of Milan, and for

for the treacherous assassination of two embassadors, by the marquis del Guasto, governor of the Milanese.

After explaining to all the courts of Europe the heinousness of this injury, the base conduct of the emperor, and the absolute necessity of vengeance, Francis began to make formidable preparations for war; and his orders were executed with such dispatch, that five armies were soon ready to take the field, under different generals, and with different destinations. Charles, on the other hand, levied a prodigious number of forces, and even threatened to divide the kingdom of France between himself and Henry VIII., king of England. But the subsequent hostilities proved altogether indecisive; and after some time a peace was concluded at Crespy, by which it was agreed, that all recent conquests should be mutually restored; that Charles should resign his claim to the duchy of Burgundy, and Francis renounce all pretensions to the sovereignty of Flanders and Artois; that the emperor should give in marriage * to the duke of Orleans, either his eldest daughter with the Low-countries, or the second daughter of his brother Ferdinand, with the investiture of Milan; and that both parties should turn their arms against the infidels. A. D. 1545.

The emperor was chiefly induced to grant this peace by a desire of humbling the protestant princes in Germany, who, with the papal jurisdiction, might probably throw off the imperial authority.

* The death of the duke of Orleans soon disentangled Charles from this stipulation.

thority. He accordingly concluded a dishonorable peace with the Porte; and, at the same time, entered into a league with pope Paul III. for the extirpation of heresy. His ambition, however, met with a very severe check; for, although his arms were for some time crowned with success, he was obliged, in the year 1552, to conclude a peace with the Protestants on their own terms.

During the conflict between Charles and the Protestants, Martin Luther died at Isleben, in the sixty-third year of his age, and his remains were interred with great magnificence at Wirtemburg. He appears to have been blest with extraordinary endowments, and he certainly withstood the united forces of the papal world with astonishing firmness and intrepidity. Pious in his deportment, zealous in his ministry, and indefatigable in the great work of reformation, he was equally beloved by his followers and dreaded by his enemies. His thoughts were always bent on some important design, and he seems to have had no ambition, except in the service of his God. His works were collected into seven volumes folio, after his decease, and must ever be admired by those friends of Christianity who consider the age in which he lived, the numerous difficulties he had to encounter, and the beneficial effects which resulted from his well-timed exertions.

But to return from this digression, Charles had no sooner made peace with the Protestants, than he began to regret the loss of Metz, Toul, and Verdun; and resolved to attempt the recovery of these bishoprics, by force of arms. Accordingly, he levied an army of sixty thousand men, and prevailed on Albert of Brandenburg to join him, with a very strong reinforcement; but after spending

ing almost sixty days before the walls of Metz, and losing upwards of thirty thousand men, by the sword of the enemy and inclemency of the weather, he was compelled to abandon the enterprise. To add to his misfortunes, he, at the same time, lost the footing which he had hitherto maintained in Tuscany; and the mal-administration of his viceroy in Naples threatened that kingdom with the most dreadful calamities.

Exaspérated by these disasters, and impatient to obliterate the stain which his military reputation had received before Metz, Charles retired into the Low-countries, and carried Terouanc and Hesdin by assault. In Italy, however, the imperial arms were less successful, and the Turks continued to augment their conquests in Hungary. After the war had been carried on for some time, with various success, a truce for five years was concluded between the emperor and Henry II., king of France, on condition that both parties should retain the territories which they had at present in possession.

Shortly after the cessation of hostilities, the emperor, finding his health rapidly decline, determined to relinquish the burthen of government; and accordingly recalled his son, on whom at his recent marriage with Mary queen of England, he had bestowed the kingdoms of Naples and Sicily, together with the duchy of Milan. Having assembled the states of the Low-countries at Brussels *, he explained the reasons of his resignation, recapitulated the most important actions of his life.

* See a farther account of the emperor's resignation in vol. XV. p. 266.

and transferred the sovereign authority to Philip with such unaffected magnanimity and paternal affection, that the whole audience melted into tears. A few weeks after this solemnity, Charles conferred all his royalties and signories, both in Europe and America, upon his son; reserving nothing to himself but a pension of one hundred thousand crowns, to be deducted from the revenue of Spain.

A. D. 1555. After making some ineffectual attempts to secure the German princes in the interests of Philip, Charles made a formal resignation of the empire to his brother Ferdinand, and immediately set out for Spain with a chosen retinue. On his landing at Laredo, he prostrated himself upon the earth, and, kissing it with fervor, exclaimed "O my beloved country, may heaven shower down its blessings upon thee: naked I came from my mother's womb, and naked I return to thee, thou common mother of mankind! In return for all I owe thee, I devote to thee my flesh and my bones, the only offering I have now to bestow."

Previously to his arrival in Spain, a small building had been annexed to the monastery of St. Just, consisting of six rooms; four of them in the form of friars' cells, with naked walls; and the other two hung with brown cloth, and furnished in the most simple manner. Thither Charles retired with only twelve domestics; and there, after a peaceful solitude of about two years, he resigned his breath, in the fifty-ninth year of his age. His body was interred at Granada, near those of his grandfather and grandmother; but it was afterward removed to the Escurial, by order of Philip IV.

Charles V. was of a middle stature, with blue eyes, sandy hair, an aquiline nose, and pointed chin. He understood six languages, delighted in reading and drawing, and was passionately fond of martial exercises. The orgies of Bacchus seem to have had no charms for him; and though too often led into irregularities by his love of the fair sex, he carefully concealed his weakness, lest he should encourage it in others by his example.

CHAP. IV.

From the Abdication of Charles V. to the Peace of Westphalia.

FERDINAND, brother of Charles V., was born at Alcala de Hernares in Spain, where he spent the chief part of his youth, and applied himself with extraordinary attention to the study of the belles-lettres. By the advice of cardinal Ximenes, however, he was sent into Flanders; and the celebrated Erasmus was employed to finish his education. On his marriage with the princess Anne of Hungary, he received all the German territories of the house of Austria, from the liberality of his brother; and his subsequent good fortune enabled him to ornament the two heads of the imperial eagle with the crowns of Hungary and Bohemia.

The late emperor's act of renunciation having been unanimously approved by the electors, they transferred to Ferdinand the imperial dignity, and took the accustomed oaths of allegiance. The Roman pontiff, however, refused to admit the abdication of Charles, or the election of his brother, because both of these events had taken place without his concurrence. He even refused audience to Don Martin de Guzman, whom Ferdinand had sent to take the usual oath in his name; and appointed certain cardinals to examine into the merits of the affair. These commissaries declared that the embassador could not be admitted to any audience, until he should have demonstrated in what

what manner the imperial throne became vacant, and by what right Ferdinand pretended to the succession; as all the recent proceedings at Frankfort were null and void, because carried on by heretic electors, without the consent of his holiness. Ferdinand, however, paid but little regard to this declaration; for he considered the ancient customs of soliciting the papal confirmation and going to receive the imperial diadem at Rome as superfluous ceremonies. His indifference upon this occasion was not productive of any disagreeable consequences; for, on the death of Paul IV., which happened shortly after the election, he received the confirmation of his new dignity from Pius IV.

Ferdinand, being desirous of settling the affairs of the empire, convoked a diet at Augsburg, and earnestly exhorted the princes and states to submit to an œcumenical council, as the only probable means of re-establishing the union of Germany; and he pledged his word that they should be more favorably heard in that assembly than they had been in the council of Trent. The Protestants refused to accede to this proposal: but Ferdinand continued to solicit the pope for convoking a national council; and after some time his holiness published a bull for renewing the council of Trent, whither all princes, prelates, and embassadors, were invited. A. D. 1560.

On the publication of this bull, the Protestants assembled at Naumberg in Saxony, where they were visited by two nuncios, whom the pope had sent to invite them to the council. But, though they received the papal embassadors with great politeness, and listened to their harangue with profound attention, they firmly refused to attend a council which the pope had no power to con-

yoke, and declared their intention of adhering to the Confession of Augsburg in spite of all opposition.

In the mean time, Ferdinand managed his interests so successfully in a diet at Frankfort, that his son Maximilian, who had already received the crown of Bohemia, was unanimously elected king of the Romans. He likewise took this opportunity of attempting to persuade the Protestants to submit to a general council; but finding them inflexible, he resolved to take another method to terminate those dissensions which had so long distracted his empire. Accordingly, with the assistance of Charles IX. king of France, he concerted a remonstrance to the fathers of the council, exhorting them to undertake a reformation among the ecclesiastics, whose depravity afforded a subject of universal complaint; but the pope would not allow the council to take cognizance of an affair which he affirmed to belong to his own peculiar province. This was the last public act in which Ferdinand was concerned; for he was soon afterward attacked by a disorder, which put a period to his life, in the sixty-first year of his age and the eighth of his reign.

Ferdinand was justly famed for his remarkable equity, prudence, munificence, and unwearied application to business. Though zealously attached to the Roman-catholic religion, he never attempted to enforce obedience by the terrors of his authority; but exerted himself, with unremitting diligence, to reconcile the theological differences of his subjects by argument and persuasion. He piqued himself on a rigid observance of his word; and he gave a striking instance of his punctuality in that respect, by bestowing a recompence on an officer

officer who, after the promise, had rendered himself unworthy of it. "I owe," said he, "a greater respect to my own word, than to the merits of him to whom I have pledged it." His remains were interred at Prague, near those of his consort Anne, with whom he had lived in the utmost harmony of conjugal affection.

Maximilian ascended the imperial throne in full possession of all those amiable qualities which adorned the character of his father. Like him, he preferred pacific expedients in all disputes, especially those of religion: observing that spiritual affairs ought not to be determined by the sword; and affirming that those who held a contrary opinion were enemies to union and tranquillity. A. D. 1564.

After a successful exertion against John Sigismund, who had assumed the title of king of Hungary, Maximilian convoked a diet at Augsburg, where he offered several proposals for strengthening the peace with the Protestants, for executing the preceding regulations in the empire, and for granting such succours as should be sufficient to oppose the progress of the Turks. Pope Pius V., however, was alarmed by the convocation of this diet; and ordered cardinal Commendori to forbid the discussion of any religious point, under pain of excommunication.

Having obtained a subsidy for the maintenance of a numerous army, Maximilian marched, at the head of eighty thousand foot and twenty thousand horse, into Hungary, where Solyman had invested Zighet. But, being persuaded to remain on the defensive, he had the mortification to witness the reduction of that town; and imprudently retreated to Austria, while the infidels were thrown

into consternation by the sudden death of their sovereign, which was occasioned by an apoplexy. The emperor however placed such strong garrisons in most of the principal towns of Hungary, that Selim, the son of Solyman, thought proper to conclude a truce for twelve years. On his return from this expedition, Maximilian condemned John Frederic, duke of Saxony, to perpetual imprisonment, for having granted a protection to criminals, and levied troops under the vain hope of seizing the imperial throne. About this time also the Protestants of Austria were indulged in liberty of conscience; and the emperor made some vigorous, though ineffectual, exertions on behalf of those inhabitants of the Netherlands whose religion subjected them to the vengeance of the court of Spain.

After procuring his eldest son Rodolphus to be elected king of the Romans and acknowledged as his successor to the crowns of Hungary and Bohemia, Maximilian hoped to have obtained the kingdom of Poland for his second son; and he actually made preparations for asserting his claim by force of arms. But his project was soon interrupted by a distemper, which induced him to relinquish all worldly affairs, and devote his thoughts entirely to the contemplation of a future state. He had for some time been accustomed to discourse, in his familiar parties, upon the immortality of the soul; and he encountered the terrors of death with perfect resignation, in the fiftieth year of his age.

Maximilian II. appears to have been one of the most amiable princes that ever swayed the imperial sceptre. No individual ever complained of having heard a harsh expression from his lips; none

none ever departed dissatisfied from his audience. So regular were his economical arrangements, that to every act of his life its appropriate hour was allotted; and every day, after dinner, the meanest of his subjects was at liberty to approach him. A faithful husband, an affectionate parent, and a passionate lover of truth, his example had considerable influence on the manners of his people, and the empire flourished in a peculiar manner under his administration.

On the demise of this illustrious prince, his eldest son succeeded to the empire by the name of Rodolphus II.; and the first acts of his government were calculated to preserve the peace of Germany, and to provide a powerful resistance against the Turks. But, although he inherited many of his father's virtues, his zeal for the Roman faith overstepped the bounds of charity; and he rendered himself rather unpopular, by laying the Austrian Protestants under several restrictions in the exercise of their religion.

A. D. 1576.

Amurath III., in violation of a truce which he had concluded with the emperor, made an hostile incursion into Croatia, and ravaged the country with fire and sword. Hereupon Rodolphus sent out an army of forty thousand men, which soon attacked the infidels, near the abbey of Siffeg, and defeated them with prodigious slaughter. Amurath made some vigorous attempts to retrieve this misfortune; but victory continued to hover over the imperial standard, and the Turks were again discomfited, with the loss of twelve thousand men. The emperor's lieutenant-general also recovered twelve strong castles, and emanci-

pated

pated a prodigious number of Christians from slavery.

After obtaining some fresh supplies from a diet at Ratisbon, the emperor returned to Prague, in order to prepare for the defence of Hungary, as the grand-vizir Sinan, general of the Turks, had compelled the archduke Matthias to raise the siege of Graan; made himself master of the fortresses of Thata and St. Martin; and prevailed on the governor of Javerin to betray his trust for a considerable sum of money.

A. D. 1596. Sinan's progress was soon checked, by a reinforcement which the emperor sent to his brother Matthias, and the infidels were defeated in several engagements; but the ensuing year was not so fortunate to the imperialists. Mohammed III., who had succeeded Amurath in the Ottoman empire, resolved to signalise the commencement of his reign by some great exploit; and accordingly marched with an army of a hundred and fifty thousand men against Agria, one of the most important places in High Hungary. At first the garrison made a resolute defence; but, growing impatient at the delay of an expected reinforcement, they compelled the governor to surrender upon dishonourable conditions. This baseness, however, was amply revenged; for the Turks had no sooner entered the place than they violated the capitulation, and put the whole garrison to the sword. After the reduction of this place, and a sanguinary conflict with the archduke Maximilian, Amurath returned to Constantinople; and, by that retreat, gave the imperialists an opportunity of recovering several important fortresses.

The

The war was carried on with various success for about nine years; but as no advantages were gained by either party which could justify such a prodigious effusion of blood, both sides began to think of peace, and an accommodation was at length concluded between the emperor and sultan Achmet, the successor of Mohammed, by which it was agreed that the Turks should forbear from making incursions on the Christians; that both parties should mutually send presents to each other every three years; that they should retain their respective conquests; and that they should not attack each other on any pretence during the term of twenty years. A. D. 1606.

Shortly after the ratification of this treaty, the states of Hungary assembled at Presburg, and elected the archduke Matthias for their king, on condition that he should confirm all their privileges, and indulge them with the liberty of professing the reformed religion. Many of the Bohemians also determined on a similar measure, and actually persuaded Matthias to march into their country at the head of a numerous army.

These proceedings were extremely disagreeable to the emperor, who had conceived a slight jealousy of his brother; and it was expected that some serious consequences would take place. But these were happily prevented by the interposition of the princes; and, after some time, a treaty was concluded, by which Rodolphus yielded Hungary and Austria to the archduke, and even promised to secure him in the succession to Bohemia, provided he himself should die without male issue. New disputes, however, soon broke out between the royal brothers; and the emperor was so perpetually harassed, that in the year 1611 he

he ceded Bohemia, by an authentic deed, to Matthias, and ordered the states to acknowledge him as his successor in that kingdom.

After this transaction the emperor became melancholy and distrustful, and secluded himself in the retirement of his palace, till he was seized with a disorder which put a period to his life, in the fifty-ninth year of his age, and the thirty-sixth of his reign.

Rodolphus was of a middling stature and agreeable aspect; remarkable for a peculiar sweetness of temper, delicacy of judgment, and extent o understanding. With these advantages he ascended the imperial throne; but in the sequel he proved himself altogether unfit for that exalted station. His chief attention was devoted to the study of chemistry and mechanics, insomuch that his palace was always filled with chemists, and he frequently spent whole days at the shops of clockmakers, turners, &c. He also passed many leisure hours in his stables, and often went thither in the dress of a groom, to shun the notice of the public. His body was interred in the cathedral church of Prague.

A. D. 1612. Matthias, having received his brother's diadem from the electors, fixed his residence at Vienna, and exerted himself to reestablish the tranquillity of the empire. This he in a great measure effected; and he had also the good fortune to persuade the Persians and Russians to participate the burthen of a war against the Turks. But, by his procuring the crowns of Hungary and Bohemia for his cousin Ferdinand, he occasioned much disturbance and effusion of blood. Ferdinand had no sooner received the sceptre of Bohemia, than he declared himself inimical

imical to the sectaries, who were very numerous in that kingdom; and both the Protestants and Catholics soon perceived that his grand object was to weaken their parties, for the purpose of obtaining absolute authority. A general revolt was the consequence of this discovery; and, though the emperor assisted his cousin with the bravest troops of Germany, the Bohemians defended themselves with extraordinary resolution, and often caused the balance of victory to waver.

After this conflict had continued some time, the states of Silesia entered into a strict alliance with the Bohemians; which measure proved the source of a war that ravaged Germany during the space of thirty years. This misfortune, together with the loss of his beloved empress and the obvious discontent of the Austrians, had such an effect upon Matthias, that he sunk into a languishing distemper, which terminated his life in the sixty-third year of his age and the eighth of his reign. On his death-bed he called Heaven to witness, that his chief desire had been to re-establish peace in Bohemia; and he recommended to Ferdinand, as an excellent rule of conduct, the following maxim:—"If you wish your subjects to be happy under your government, do not let them feel the full force of your authority."

Upon the demise of Matthias, the imperial crown was offered to Maximilian duke of Bavaria; but he prudently refused a present which must inevitably have subjected him to the vengeance of the house of Austria: and, after some time, Ferdinand was proclaimed king of the Romans, with the accustomed ceremonies.

The Bohemians were so highly exasperated at this election, that they immediately renounced all allegiance to Ferdinand, A. D. 1619.

dinand, and bestowed his diadem upon Frederic, the elector Palatine. That prince prevailed on the kings of Sweden and Denmark to espouse his cause; but, while he remained in expectation of their assistance, he was utterly defeated by the imperialists, put under the ban of the empire, and deprived of all his states. Gabor also, whom the emperor had, in a moment of difficulty, acknowledged as king of Hungary, was now compelled to resign his regal dignity; the king of Denmark was despoiled of all his Germanic possessions, and confined within his pristine boundaries; and Mansfeld, the gallant general who had long nourished the martial ardor of the Bohemians, fell a victim to unconquerable grief.

These successive advantages seemed to promise Ferdinand a complete triumph; but his hopes proved illusive, and a tremendous storm soon followed the sun-shine of security. The court of Vienna, emboldened by success, no longer dissembled its design of suppressing the Protestant religion, extinguishing the liberties of the empire, and rendering the imperial diadem hereditary in the house of Austria. Germany consequently began to tremble with the apprehension of slavish subjection; the Protestants more especially took the alarm; and cardinal Richelieu, anxious to humble the Austrian greatness, excited the public inquietude, and fomented the discontent of Gustavus Adolphus, king of Sweden, who had been insulted by the emperor.

Richelieu's plans were attended with complete success. The Protestants and Catholics, laying aside their theological disputes, conspired together for the diminution of Ferdinand's power; the courts of France and England cheerfully embarked in the same cause; and Gustavus rushed, with

with the impetuosity of a torrent, into Germany.

Having made himself master of several places of importance, and engaged in a treaty with the landgrave of Hesse and the electors of Saxony and Brandenburg, Gustavus made preparations for engaging count Tilly, general of the imperial forces, who was then encamped in the fields of Leipsic. Accordingly the two armies (each consisting of about forty thousand men) were drawn up in order of battle, and a most obstinate conflict ensued; but victory eventually declared in favor of the Swedes and their allies, and the imperialists were defeated, with the loss of seven thousand six hundred men, besides five thousand who were made prisoners. One hundred pair of colours and many standards, together with all the baggage and artillery, fell into the hands of the conquerors.

The immediate consequence of this victory was the reduction of Leipsic, which had been wrested from the elector of Saxony: and Gustavus extended his conquests with such surprising rapidity, that he soon made himself master of the whole country from the Elbe to the Rhine, comprehending a space of near one hundred leagues, full of fortified towns. Erfort in Thuringia, Wirtzburg, and all the strong places of Franconia, eluded his resentment by timely submissions; Mentz surrendered, after a short resistance; and the victorious prince erected a pyramid upon the banks of the Rhine, that posterity might know how far he had conducted his heroic followers.

These successes were soon followed by a general revolution in favor of the conqueror; and Ferdinand saw himself in danger A. D. 1632.

danger of being besieged in his capital, or chased from his dominions. In this exigence his ministers represented, that the most prudent expedient for re-establishing his affairs would be to deprive Tilly of his command, and bestow it upon a general of superior ability. This advice was accepted; and Walstein duke of Fridland, who had been unjustly disgraced, was now recalled to defend his country.

Notwithstanding this regulation, and the subsequent exertions of the emperor, Gustavus continued to enlarge his conquests; and the wreath of laurel which adorned his brow seemed to acquire fresh verdure in every engagement. Having reduced a considerable part of Franconia and expressed his intention of penetrating into Bavaria, he received intelligence that Tilly had prepared to dispute the passage of the Leck; but he persisted in his design, and opened such a prodigious fire upon the imperial regiments, that they were soon dispersed with dreadful slaughter, and Tilly himself was mortally wounded.

While Gustavus was employed in the reduction of Munich, Walstein reduced all Bohemia under the dominion of the emperor; but the recollection of his private wrongs predominated in his mind, and he obstinately refused to adopt such measures as might have facilitated the restoration of a general peace. He even permitted his troops to ravage the Upper Palatinate, as if it had been an enemy's country; and instead of attacking the Swedes while they were greatly inferior to him in numbers, he contented himself with cutting off their convoys, and interrupting their foraging parties.

Meanwhile Gustavus received such numerous reinforcements, that he soon found himself at the

head

head of sixty thousand men, and made immediate preparations for attacking the imperialists in their camp. An engagement accordingly ensued, in which both parties distinguished themselves by extraordinary exertions for the space of ten hours: but, though every regiment in the Swedish army marched up to the attack in its turn, Gustavus found it utterly impossible to force the intrenchments. He therefore resolved to effectuate a retreat; and, seeing no general officer near him, he called to an old Scottish colonel, who had quitted his service in disgust, and earnestly requested that he would wave his resentment upon this occasion, and exert himself for the safety of his troops. The veteran immediately rushed into the very hottest part of the battle; delivered the orders of Gustavus; and conducted the retreat with such order and ability, that the imperialists durst not venture a pursuit. But he affirmed that this was the last service he would ever render to an ungrateful prince; and he actually retired to his own country, in contempt of all the offers which the king of Sweden made in order to retain him in his service.

After this engagement, Gustavus marched to Naumburg, where he received intelligence that Papenheim had been detached from the imperial army to conduct six regiments to Cologne; and that Walstein had retired to Lutzen, at the distance of two leagues from Leipsic. The king was elated by this news, and immediately set out to attack his enemies, who had thus imprudently weakened their forces. On his arrival at Lutzen he arranged his troops in order of battle, and next morning commenced the assault with such irre-

sistible fury, that the imperialists were driven from the place where their cannon was mounted: but this post was retaken in half an hour, and the Swedes were compelled to give way in their turn. Alarmed at this circumstance, Gustavus alighted from his charger, and, putting himself at the head of his regiments, "If," said he, "after having forded so many rivers, scaled so many walls, and reduced so many fortified towns, you have not courage to defend me, at least make one effort to stand and witness my death." This speech produced an instantaneous effect upon the fleeing troops, who now faced about, and renewed the battle with such resolution as to gain the artillery and force the intrenchments of Walstein's camp: but while they were thus employed, their gallant sovereign was slain by a party of cuirassiers.

A.D. 1633. This fatal accident, together with the arrival of count Papenheim, seemed to threaten the Swedes with the most fatal consequences: but they stood their ground with undaunted firmness; and continued the combat with unremitting fury, till the imperialists were eventually defeated, with the loss of six thousand men and all their cannon. Next morning the king's body was found, stripped and mangled, on the field of battle; whence it was conveyed to Stockholm with great solemnity.

Upon the demise of Gustavus, the emperor was advised to publish a general amnesty, in order to facilitate an accommodation: but he persisted in his design of acquiring absolute power, and made new preparations for continuing the war. Germany was, therefore, doomed to remain under her distracting calamities; towns were reduced and

and retaken; battles were fought with various success; and the country was literally crimsoned with blood.

During these transactions, Walstein alarmed the emperor by his ambitious conduct; and, in consequence of his threatening a revolt, the cabinet of Vienna determined that he should either be killed or apprehended. The former alternative took place, and the gallant duke of Fridland perished by the hand of an assassin. His most intimate friends, who had engaged to follow his fortune, met a similar fate.

Notwithstanding the general calamities which had resulted from his own pride and ambition, Ferdinand possessed sufficient interest with the states to procure the election of his son as king of the Romans. This, however, was one of his last gratifications; for he died soon afterwards, in the fifty-ninth year of his age and the eighteenth of his reign. By the performance of several vows which he made against the Protestants, he acquired the appellation of the Apostolic Emperor, and many popish historians have held him up as an object of admiration: but, from an impartial review of his conduct, we must pronounce him an unfeeling bigot, and a scourge of the empire. A blind attachment to the Romish faith seems to have been the only distinguishing part of his character; for his talents were contemptible, and all the success of his arms must be attributed to the capacity of his generals.

Ferdinand III. son of the late emperor, ascended the imperial throne at a critical and distressing juncture; and though he succeeded in tranquillising the interior of Germany, he had the mortification to perceive that the flames of war continued

tinued to rage with unabated fury on the frontiers, and that the calamities of the people were prolonged by the abilities of the generals employed. Bannier, Torstenson, Weymar, Wrangel, Merci, and many others, distinguished themselves by their gallant conduct; and the hostile sovereigns, sure of unfailing resources in their commanders, were but little alarmed by occasional defeats. Hostilities were consequently carried on with vigor, and the ill-fated inhabitants of Germany still groaned beneath the yoke of oppression.

Shortly after the new emperor's accession, Bernard duke of Weymar penetrated into Alsace, and crossed the Rhine by a bridge of boats about six leagues above Strasburg: he also erected several forts in the island of Wittenweyer. But his forces were defeated by general de Wert; and he himself was seriously embarrassed by the death of his friend William landgrave of Hesse-Cassel, who had designed to re-establish the Palatine family, by means of a league between France, Sweden, and the United Provinces.

The duke's courage, however, was not damped by these misfortunes. Having crossed the Rhine with some chosen troops, he reduced the forest-towns of Seckingen, Lauffemberg, and Waldshut, and defeated the imperialists in a pitched battle before Rhinfield. Hunningen, Neuberg, and Rottelin, were soon added to his conquests; and Brisac was obliged to surrender, after having been reduced to such extremity of famine, that the inhabitants were with difficulty restrained from digging up and devouring the bodies of their deceased friends. Louis XIII., being apprised of these transactions, dispatched a messenger on pretence of congratulating the duke, but in reality

to

to persuade him to cede Brisac to the crown of France. This attempt proved unsuccessful; but Weymar returned such an evasive answer, that the French monarch promised him a reinforcement of eight thousand men.

Whilst the duke of Weymar was thus triumphing over the Austrians in Alsace, and the Swedish general Bannier was employed in the reduction of Pomerania, an engagement took place in Westphalia, between Charles Lewis, prince Palatine, and count de Hasfeld, one of the emperor's lieutenant-generals; and, after a very sanguinary conflict, victory declared in favor of the imperialists. Prince Rupert and count de Ferents were made prisoners; all the Palatine's artillery fell into the hands of the conqueror; and Charles Lewis escaped with great difficulty to Minden.

Upon the demise of the duke de Weymar, which happened shortly after his reduction of Thau, a treaty was concluded between the king of France and the Weymarian forces; by which the duke de Longueville was acknowledged general, and a resolution was taken to march toward the Lower Palatinate, while the count de Guebriant put the forest towns in a state of defence; John Lewis d'Erlach was continued in the government of Brisac; and Philip Bernold, a gentleman of Alsace, was invested with the command of Rhinfeld.

A.D. 1639.

In the mean time conferences were held at Hamburg, to promote the restoration of peace; but the powers who sent their ministers thither seemed to be inspired with mutual distrust. Louis XIII. quarrelled with the count Palatine about the omission of some ceremonial; an ancient

cient grudge which subsisted between the French and English nations rendered them averse to the conclusion of a treaty; and the Dutch, who were ill affected to both, refused to renounce the neutrality which they had promised to the emperor.

While all the true patriots of Germany regreted the failure of these negociations, Bannier was making a rapid progress in Saxony; where he took several places of importance, and defeated the Saxon general Maracini in two engagements. Bohemia was also filled with dismay by the terror of his arms; and Mecklenburg, Brandenburg, and Franconia, were ravaged by generals Koningsmark and Axel-Cili. The emperor endeavoured to check Bannier's career by some splendid offers, and the Swedish hero actually began to think of putting an end to his fatigues: but this was a mere stratagem to amuse the mareschal, till the archduke Leopold and general Picolomini should be in readiness to march against him.

Upon the arrival of the imperial forces, Bannier formed a junction with the troops of de Longueville, and persuaded George duke of Brunswic to assist him with three thousand foot and five hundred horse: but Picolomini's advantageous encampment precluded the hope of a successful attack; and, after the two armies had remained in sight of each other for six weeks, the confederates removed to Neustadt. Picolomini followed them with the utmost expedition; but he still remained on the defensive, and carefully shunned an engagement. By steadily pursuing this conduct, the imperial general compelled Bannier to quit the hereditary territories of the house of Austria, and eventually chased the confederates out of Franconia.

The

The hostile powers again expressed a wish for a pacification; and Lutzoro, one of Ferdinand's aulic counsellors, was employed to negociate the preliminaries at Hamburg, with the plenipotentiaries of France and Sweden. But the emperor considered the articles as derogatory to his honour; and a diet which he had convoked at Ratisbon granted him supplies for carrying on the war. Bannier being apprised of this circumstance, formed the design of dispersing the assembly, and even of surprising the town: accordingly he led the confederates to Schwendorf, whence he detached six regiments of cavalry across the Danube, to Ratisbon. The approach of this army occasioned an universal consternation; fifteen hundred imperial troops were made prisoners, and the emperor himself escaped with difficulty; for whilst he was preparing to take the diversion of hunting, his advanced guard, litter, hawks, and equipage, were all carried off by the enemy. It seems that the confederates had designed to take the advantage of the frost, to block up the town; but the weather becoming more mild, they were obliged to repass the river and rejoin their main army. Soon after this expedition, Bannier retired to Halberstadt, where he died, in the forty-first year of his age, to the inexpressible regret of his partisans. This great officer had learned the art of war under Gustavus Adolphus, and was universally acknowledged to be the most able general of his time, especially in the knowledge of encampment, of drawing up an army in order of battle, and of effecting a skilful retreat. Patient of fatigue, and indefatigable in the discharge of his duty, his example operated powerfully on the Swedish army; and his

A.D. 1641.

his humanity after victory induced all Europe to consider him with peculiar respect.

Notwithstanding the death of Bannier, war continued to desolate the empire; and the imperial forces were extremely unsuccessful. Picolomini and the archduke Leopold flattered themselves with the hope of compelling the princes of Brunswic and the landgrave of Hesse to sue for an accommodation; but this project was soon frustrated by the Swedes and French, who met and defeated them near Wolfembuttle, with great slaughter. In the ensuing campaign, count de Guebriant gained a decisive victory over a body of Austrian troops near Ordinguen; the duke of Saxe-Lawemburg was defeated by the Swedish general Torstenson, and obliged to surrender himself prisoner of war; and a more numerous army under Picolomini was utterly dispersed in the plain of Breitenfield, with the loss of eight thousand men, forty-six pieces of cannon, one hundred and sixteen pair of colours, and seventy-five standards.

A.D. 1643. After this battle and the subsequent reduction of Leipsic, the confederates expected that the house of Austria would be sincerely disposed to an accommodation; but as the courts of Vienna and Madrid were sensible that an exorbitant price would be set upon the peace at that juncture, they appeared very indifferent about renewing the negociations. However, after mature deliberation, they agreed to open conferences for a general peace in the month of July; and the preliminaries being published, all the nations which had been so long exposed to a calamitous war, congratulated themselves upon the near approach of returning tranquillity.

But

But this pleasing prospect was soon overcast by the death of Louis XIII. and the hostile designs of the new government. A victory obtained over the Spaniards, by the duke d'Enguien, convinced the confederates that they might still expect the assistance of the French ministry; and Torstenson was ordered by his court to march against the king of Denmark, whom they accused of harbouring all the sentiments of an enemy, under the mask of a mediator. About the same time the duke of Lorrain renounced his treaty with France; Guebriant was mortally wounded at the siege of Rotweil; and de Rantzau, who succeeded him in command, was defeated and taken prisoner by count de Merci, general of the Bavarians.

On the re-establishment of peace between the crowns of Sweden and Denmark, Torstenson returned into Germany, and pursued the imperial army from place to place, till at length an engagement took place in the neighbourhood of Thabor. This action continued for the space of four hours with equal obstinacy and success, but the Austrians were eventually defeated; general Gocutz, and about three thousand men, were killed on the spot; general Hasfield, and several officers of distinction, were numbered among the prisoners, and twelve hundred fugitives were overtaken and slaughtered upon the banks of the Danube.

Alarmed by these repeated misfortunes, Ferdinand pressed the elector of Bavaria to furnish him with some troops; and the duke accordingly sent four thousand men toward Vienna, while Galas collected the remains of the imperial army in Bohemia, and encamped under the cannon of Pilsen to observe the motions of the enemy. Torstenson, in the mean time, made himself master of almost

all the towns in Moravia, and laid close siege to Brinn, as the reduction of that place would enable him to penetrate into Hungary and Austria.

Upon the first intelligence of Torstenson's design, the city of Vienna was overwhelmed with such consternation, that the emperor immediately retired to Ratisbon; and the empress, with many of the courtiers, took refuge at Gratz, in Stiria. All the valuable furniture was removed; the fortifications were repaired; the magazines were filled; and all the necessary preparations made for sustaining a vigorous siege. However it was soon discovered that Torstenson had no intention of attacking the capital, and the gallant resistance of Brinn gave Ferdinand time to put his affairs in some order.

During these transactions, general Merci obtained a signal victory over the viscount de Turenne, in the neighbourhood of Mariendal; but, on the arrival of a reinforcement under the duke d'Enguien, a second battle was fought, which terminated in the death of Merci and the defeat of the imperialists. Nordlingen, and some adjacent towns, immediately opened their gates to the conquerors; but they were, soon afterward, retaken by the archduke Leopold.

A.D. 1646. Torstenson having resigned the command of the Swedish army, general Wrangel was nominated as his successor; and his arms were attended with considerable success. In concert with the viscount Turenne, he ravaged part of Bavaria, pillaged all the country toward the Lake of Constance, and surprised several important fortresses in the vicinity of Bruckheim. Meanwhile the emperor caused his son Ferdinand to be proclaimed king of Bohemia, and afterwards

carried

carried him to Presburg, where he was solemnly invested with the crown of Hungary.

Early in the ensuing spring, Wrangel and Turenne attacked an imperial army, under general Melander, in the neighbourhood of Augsburg. The engagement commenced with great fury, and both sides fought with incredible resolution; but, on the death of Melander, the imperialists were thrown into confusion, and were dispersed with great slaughter. About the same time baron Lamboy, who commanded the troops of Westphalia and Cologne, was utterly defeated in the duchy of Juliers; and Charles Gustavus, prince Palatine, undertook the siege of Prague with so numerous an army, that the place must inevitably have been taken, had not the emperor resolved to conclude a peace.

Hitherto the negociations at Munster and Osnaburg had varied according to the vicissitudes of the war: the cession of Alsace to the crown of France, and the several demands of the treating powers, met with such difficulties as appeared almost insurmountable. But after many debates and altercations these obstructions were removed; the conferences were translated first to Osnaburg and then to Munster; and at each place a treaty was concluded, since known by the appellation of the Peace of Westphalia. By this treaty France acquired the bishoprics of Metz, Toul, and Verdun; together with Brisac, the landgraviate of Upper and Lower Alsace, the Suntgaw, and the prefecture of the ten towns situated in Alsace: Sweden obtained the archbishopric of Bremen and some other territories: the house of Austria recovered the Forest-towns, with all their territories and appurtenances: the electors and princes of

both parties were re-established in all their possessions; and the Protestants obtained permission to exercise their religion both in private and public.

A. D. 1649. Notwithstanding all the precautions that could be taken, many difficulties intervened before this important business could be concluded. The pope published a bull, annulling all the articles which he conceived prejudicial to the Romish religion; and the king of Spain formally protested against the restoration of the Lower Palatinate to Charles Lewis, count Palatine of the Rhine. But these measures were totally disregarded; and, after mature deliberation, the plenipotentiaries of the different powers mutually delivered their ratifications.

CHAP. V.

From the Peace of Westphalia to the Conclusion of the Treaty of Rastadt.

IMMEDIATELY after the restoration of peace, the emperor exerted himself to procure the succession for his son Ferdinand; and that prince was accordingly elected king of the Romans, after signing a capitulation, by which he obliged himself to maintain inviolably the Golden Bull, and the eighth electorate created in favor of the count Palatine; to observe religiously the treaties of Munster and Osnaburg; and to form no alliance concerning the affairs of the empire without the consent of the Germanic body. A.D. 1652.

This ceremony being performed, the emperor returned to Ratisbon; where a diet was held to deliberate upon complaints that had been made by several states against France, which, they affirmed, had invaded their privileges, in consequence of the cession of Alsace. The inhabitants of Bremen also complained that Charles Gustavus, king of Sweden, paid no attention to the preservation of their rights, but had even surprised a borough in their neighbourhood by force of arms; and that, when the towns of Lubec and Hamburg remonstrated on these proceedings, Koningsmark had replied, that neither the diet nor the emperor had the least right to intermeddle with the concerns of Sweden and its subjects. Upon this re-

presentation, the circles of Westphalia and Lower Saxony were ordered to defend the privileges of Bremen, and hostilities were immediately threatened on both sides, but, by the mediation of the Hollanders, this difference was accommodated; and the grievances of Bremen were redressed in a congress at Stade. At the same time, the Protestants chose the elector of Saxony to direct their conferences and execute their resolutions; and the Catholics declared the elector of Bavaria chief of their union.

These affairs being settled, the diet broke up; and the emperor, with his empress and eldest son, returned to Vienna amidst universal acclamations. The joy of the populace, however, was soon converted into mourning, by the loss of the king of the Romans, who died in the twentieth year of his age; and the imperial court removed to Ebersdorf, in the utmost consternation.

Having procured his son Leopold to be acknowledged king of Hungary, and amused the Protestants of that kingdom with great promises of indulgence, Ferdinand engaged in a treaty with the kings of Denmark and Poland against the Swedes. This league was approved by the cham of the Crim Tartars, and the king of Denmark declared war by a manifesto: but the emperor did not see the effect of these measures; for, previously to the commencement of hostilities, he died at Vienna, in the forty-ninth year of his age and the twentieth of his reign.

Ferdinand III. was zealously attached to the Romish religion; and on some occasions he expressed a tender regard for the interests of his subjects: but he was peculiarly unfortunate in the distribution of his favors, and admitted several persons

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sons into his councils who engaged him in imprudent enterprises, and involved him in many difficulties. It is but justice, however, to observe, that no emperor ever saw himself attacked by so many potent enemies at once, or sustained such accumulated defeats and vexations, without sinking under his misfortunes.

Immediately after the demise of this prince, an electoral diet was held at Frankfort, in order to supply the vacancy on the imperial throne; and, after much opposition on the part of France, Leopold Ignatius, king of Hungary and Bohemia, was declared duly elected. A. D. 1657.

The new emperor, having compelled the king of Sweden to make an accommodation with Poland, determined also to check his progress in Denmark, and accordingly ordered a numerous army of Austrians and Brandenburgers to invade Pomerania: but the Swedish generals took such precautions for the defence of the principal towns, that this expedition was rendered entirely fruitless.

Meanwhile, the French and English pressed the States-general to withhold all further assistance from the king of Denmark; and, having concluded a treaty, called the convention of the Hague, they engaged to reduce by force that party which should refuse to come to an accommodation. This measure was extremely displeasing to his Swedish majesty; but, having sustained a severe defeat, he declared his resolution of acceding to it; and his death, which happened soon afterwards, facilitated the restoration of peace.

Scarcely were the troubles of the North composed before the emperor was threatened with an invasion from the Turks, who had made an irrup-

tion into Transylvania, slain the vaivode Ragotski in battle, and threatened to ravage the country of Zathmar with fire and sword, unless the inhabitants would acknowledge the sultan for their sovereign. Hereupon Leopold sent Montecuculi with twenty thousand men into Hungary, garrisoned Zekelheid with five thousand Germans, and repaired all the fortifications of the frontier towns. These preparations, however, were by no means agreeable to the Hungarian nobles: they imagined that Leopold intended rather to conquer their country than to oppose the invaders; and that, by taking possession of all the fortresses, he hoped to drive the Protestants out of Hungary, as he formerly had expelled them from Bohemia. These suspicions being communicated to the commonalty, a general discontent pervaded all parts of the kingdom, and the imperialists were obliged to make use of violence to obtain quarters and provisions.

In the ensuing spring, the Turks took the field, and advanced by rapid marches toward Friuli; but they were attacked by count Serini at the passage of Sluin, and defeated with prodigious slaughter. The conqueror improved this advantage by burning the bridge of Essek, taking the city of Five Churches, and securing several important places between the Drave and the Danube; while the count de Souches, who commanded a separate detachment, defeated four thousand of the infidels near Newhausel, and attacked the town of Lewentz with such irresistible fury, that the garrison soon surrendered at discretion.

A. D. 1664. Meanwhile the grand-vizir, having made himself master of Serinswar, passed the Meur, and avowed his intention of marching

ing to Vienna. Montecuculi, however, resolved to stop his progress; and a battle ensued, near St. Godard, which terminated in the utter defeat of the Ottoman forces. This memorable engagement lasted from nine o'clock in the morning till four in the afternoon, and the Turks obstinately refused to yield the victory till they had lost the greatest part of their troops. Upon the first intelligence of this defeat, the emperor expected some concessions on the part of the Turks, and his expectations were verified; for the grand-vizir immediately offered negociations of peace, and a treaty was soon after concluded at Temeswaer.

The Hungarians were so highly exasperated at the conclusion of this treaty, that they openly threatened a revolt, and even assaulted the messenger who was employed to carry dispatches from the grand-vizir to their sovereign. Hereupon the emperor summoned some of the refractory noblemen to Vienna; and authorised prince Lobkowitz, president of the imperial council, to tell them, that the Turks had of themselves proposed a peace, in which it was agreed that Transylvania should enjoy its liberty; that Zathmar and Zambolick should be ceded to the empire; and that his imperial majesty should have the power of erecting forts to restrain the garrisons of Waradin and Newhausel. This declaration, together with an assurance of exemption from the lodging and subsistence of foreign troops, appeased the minds of the Hungarian lords, who immediately ratified the treaty, and returned peaceably to their respective estates. But the subsequent conduct of the emperor proved so inimical to the liberty of Hungary, that the people unanimously resolved to shake off their allegiance, and actually took up arms to deliver

liver themselves from the unjust oppressions of the house of Austria.

No sooner had Leopold sent a body of forces to check this dangerous revolt, than he received intelligence that Louis XIV., king of France, had made an irruption into the Low-countries, and threatened to carry the war into Franche Comté. The emperor now saw himself placed as it were between two fires—being attacked on the one hand by Louis, and on the other by the revolted Hungarians: the princes of the empire offered but little assistance in this distressing exigence; and the French monarch pursued his conquests with such surprising rapidity, that in the space of one month the Netherlands were threatened with entire reduction; and the Spaniards were obliged to purchase the recovery of Franche Compté by a cession of Borgues, Fernes, Courtray, and all the country since called French Flanders.

In the mean time, the Hungarians persisted in their resolution of either shaking off the imperial yoke or lessening their dependence. Leopold consented to silence some of their complaints, by filling up the vacant office of Palatine, and restoring the Protestants all their churches and revenues: but the residence of a German garrison at Tokai still afforded ample cause of discontent, and Hungary still resounded with the murmurs and menaces of disaffection. About this time hostilities broke out between the elector Palatine and the duke of Lorraine, but their dispute was happily terminated by the interference of the court of France.

A.D. 1671. While the emperor was taking measures to appease the troubles of Hungary, the malecontents of that kingdom conceived the design

design of expelling all the German forces; and counts Tattembach and Serini sent a private deputation to solicit the assistance of the Turks. The sultan, however, refused this overture; and the conspirators, being betrayed to his imperial majesty, perished by the hands of an executioner. All the nobles and deputies of Upper and Lower Hungary were then summoned to a diet at Presburg; and instead of obtaining their former demands, they were compelled to maintain a German army of thirty thousand men, to pay their usual taxes, and to inflict exemplary punishments on their seditious countrymen.

Meanwhile Louis XIV., having dissolved the triple alliance of the Dutch, Swedes, and English, made formidable preparations for an invasion of Holland, and prevailed on the emperor to observe a neutrality. Leopold, however, was soon alarmed by the progress of the French arms, and determined on sending a powerful reinforcement to the States-general. Accordingly, he ordered thirty thousand men to march to their assistance; and at the same time declared by a manifesto, that, as guarantee of the treaty of Westphalia, which the French had violated, he proposed to exert himself for the safety of the Germanic body, and to check the progress of an enemy who was dreaded by all Europe.

The prince of Orange, being unable to oppose the French army, employed himself in retaking some towns which had been recently seized; and, by a subsequent junction of his forces with those of Montecuculi and the governor of Spanish Flanders, he compelled the enemy to evacuate the provinces of Holland, after they had exacted some heavy

heavy contributions, and secured the artillery at Graves and Maestricht.

Louis XIV. opened the next campaign with the siege of Besançon, the garrison of which made a vigorous defence; but were at length obliged to surrender themselves prisoners of war. Dole, Salins, and Gemersheim, were also reduced; and the viscount Turenne, having defeated an army of the allies near Sintzheim, ravaged the whole Palatinate with fire and sword.

The complaints of the elector Palatine upon this occasion inspired the other princes of Germany with indignation against the invaders; and in less than a month they sent out such powerful reinforcements, that Turenne deemed it advisable to retire to Landau, while the imperialists waited upon the banks of the Ill for the elector of Brandenburg, who had promised to join them with twenty thousand men. Previously to that junction, however, they were attacked by Turenne, who obliged them to take refuge under the cannon of Strasburg. He afterwards made a successful attempt upon their quarters at Remiremont, and reduced them to great extremities: but in attempting the reduction of Salsbach, he was killed by a cannon-ball, and his troops were obliged to retire with precipitation to Altenheim. Immediately after this event, the elector of Brandenburg made an irruption into Swedish Pomerania, and the cities of Bremen and Verden were taken by the imperialists.

A. D. 1677. Montecuculi having obtained permission to retire, upon account of his infirmities, the command of the imperial army was given to the duke of Lorraine, one of the greatest generals

generals that ever served the house of Austria. This prince immediately marched into Upper Alsace against the duke of Luxemburg, and attacked the French forces with such impetuosity, that they were quickly thrown into disorder, and would have been totally routed, had not their English allies supported the charge, while they retreated under the counterscarp of Saverne. The subsequent siege of Philipsburg proved extremely troublesome to the imperialists; for their tents were washed away by a sudden overflowing of the Rhine, and the duke of Luxemburg seized every opportunity of traversing their measures: but these difficulties were ultimately surmounted, and the town surrendered on capitulation.

Meanwhile the elector of Brandenburg, having reduced Stetin, and many other places of importance in Swedish Pomerania, passed over to Stralsund, where general Koningsmark commanded, with one thousand six hundred horse, and six hundred foot. Three thousand of the citizens immediately took up arms, and avowed their intention of defending themselves to the last extremity; but, after sustaining a furious bombardment, they hoisted a flag of truce, and obliged the governor to capitulate. Gripswald was soon afterward attacked in a similar manner, and the garrison were obliged to surrender at discretion.

Whilst the duke of Lorraine was employed in Alsace, Leopold gave fresh cause of discontent to the Hungarians, by suppressing the office of Palatine and appointing a viceroy for their kingdom. This change of government was so extremely odious, that the malecontents immediately threatened to throw off the Austrian yoke, and choose a king of their own nation; and they received such power-

powerful succours from the vaivode of Transylvania, that they were soon in a condition to resist the troops of the emperor. Tekeli, prime minister to the vaivode, asserted the rights of Hungary, at the head of twenty thousand men; and a zealous Protestant, called Father Joseph, led a numerous army into the hereditary countries of the house of Austria, and compelled most of the inhabitants to flee for safety to Vienna.

A. D. 1679. The imperialists made every possible exertion to crush this dangerous revolt; but their attempts were generally unsuccessful, and they were defeated in several successive engagements. This circumstance, together with the expectation of more serious consequences from the interference of the Turks, induced Leopold to hearken to terms of accommodation, and a truce was accordingly concluded between Tekeli and the imperial general. About the same time, Louis XIV. and the allies concluded a peace at Nimeguen, which was soon after ratified by the emperor. The elector of Brandenburg and the king of Denmark, conceiving themselves to be injured by this treaty, prepared to assert their rights by force of arms, and actually commenced hostilities against the troops of France and Sweden: but after some time they consented to sheathe their swords, and all differences were happily terminated.

A. D. 1683. The blessings of tranquillity, however, proved of short duration. Count Tekeli violated the truce in Hungary, and a numerous army of Turks, having joined the malecontents, marched up to the walls of Vienna: whilst the emperor and his courtiers took refuge in Lintz, and the citizens were overwhelmed with consternation. On the 16th of July the trenches were

were opened, and the siege was carried on with such extraordinary vigor, that a considerable breach was soon made in the body of the place, notwithstanding the intrepid gallantry of its defendants. At length, however, when all resistance appeared fruitless, and the Ottoman forces exulted in the anticipation of their important conquest, John Sobieski king of Poland, with the duke of Lorraine and the elector of Bavaria, descended from the mountains of Calemburg, at the head of sixty thousand men, and defeated the infidels with prodigious slaughter. This victory was so complete, that the Turks who escaped destruction fled on every side with precipitation, leaving behind them the great standard of Mahomet, with their baggage, warlike stores, and artillery.

Having received the grateful acknowledgments of Leopold for his timely assistance, the king of Poland resolved to follow the Turks to Barcan; but being insensibly drawn into an engagement before he could draw up his troops, he was compelled to retire. The duke of Lorraine, however, soon came to his assistance, and the enemy was again defeated with considerable loss. The fortress of Barcan was soon afterwards taken by storm; and Strigonia was reduced under the power of the emperor, after having been held by the Turks for more than a hundred and fifty years.

Leopold, being informed of the great preparations which the grand-signor had made to repair his losses, obtained a supply of thirty-five thousand men from the states of the empire, and prevailed on the Roman pontiff to contribute to the expence of the war. The operations of the campaign were left to the duke of Lorraine, only it was resolved that count Schultz should cover Moravia with ten thousand

thousand men, and that count Leslie with a body of Croatians should act upon the Drave.

After gaining some advantages in the neighbourhood of Buda, the duke of Lorraine resolved to besiege Newhausel, but on hearing that the Turks had invested Strigonia, he immediately marched thither at the head of thirty thousand men. The infidels were no sooner informed of his approach, than they retired to an advantageous post, having a marsh before them and the Danube on the right: but the duke contrived to draw them into an engagement, and they were ultimately defeated with great slaughter. This victory was followed by the reduction of Newhausel, Novigrade, and Wissegrade; and the Turks were so effectually discouraged that they crossed the Danube with the utmost precipitation, in order to avoid another engagement.

Meanwhile, Leopold having offered an amnesty to all who should lay down their arms, many of the Hungarians returned to their obedience; and the subsequent imprisonment of Tekeli, by the bashaw of Waradin, entirely changed the face of affairs in Upper Hungary. Petherasi, who had been lieutenant to Tekeli, was one of the first who accepted the emperor's clemency; and his remonstrances had such weight with the malecontents, that the cities of Filek, Tokai, and Cassovia, immediately followed his example; the rebels in other places submitted at the first appearance of count Caprara; and the Turkish troops surrendered without resistance, upon condition of being conducted to Buda.

A. D. 1686. The duke of Lorraine having strongly represented, that the reduction of Buda was essentially necessary to the security of his

his former conquests, it was resolved, in a council of war, to undertake the siege of that city. Accordingly, the allies marched thither with all possible expedition; and, after a month spent in advancing their approaches, the duke of Lorraine and the elector of Bavaria agreed to give a general assault. Upon the first signal, the grenadiers and heyduques removed the gabions from a breach which had been recently made, and being supported by a body of fusileers, advanced to take possession of the palisadoes: but the Turks, after discharging a volley of stones, bombs, and grenades, attacked them sword in hand, and compelled them to retire. Impatient to revenge this disgrace, the imperialists rushed towards the breach with irresistible fury, and actually made themselves master of the palisadoes; but, the enemy springing a mine, they were all killed or dreadfully wounded. New troops, however, pressed forward with unabated ardor, and notwithstanding the prodigious fire to which they were exposed, they took possession of the whole extent of the breach, and made a lodgement upon the ruins.

Upon intelligence that the grand-vizir was advancing at the head of forty thousand men, the duke of Lorraine resolved to increase the fire of his batteries; and the imperialists renewed the attack with such irresistible fury, that the Turks were eventually driven from their posts. A dreadful scene of confusion immediately ensued, and the wretched inhabitants were massacred without distinction of age, sex, or quality. The Ottoman army carefully avoided an engagement, and the imperial standard was soon planted on the walls of Segedin and Five-Churches. A.D. 1687.

 About

About this time, also, Leopold procured for his son Joseph, the crown of Hungary, and prevailed on an assembly of the states to declare that kingdom hereditary in the house of Austria.

The duke of Lorraine being seized with a dangerous illness, the elector of Bavaria was persuaded to open the ensuing campaign; and he accordingly resolved to undertake the siege of Belgrade. Having thrown a bridge across the Save, he marched in order of battle to force the Turks, who had intrenched themselves in that neighbourhood; but he was agreeably surprised to find their camp abandoned, and abounding in provisions and forage. He then reconnoitred the city, and made such prudent arrangements for the prosecution of the siege, that in about ten days the imperialists had ruined several parts of the fortifications, and on the fifth of the ensuing month the place was taken by assault.

During these transactions, the king of France commenced hostilities against the empire, under colour of supporting the pretensions of the duchess of Orleans to the succession of the late elector Palatine, and of asserting the right of the cardinal of Furstemberg to the electorate of Cologne. Accordingly the marquis de Boufflers, having passed the Rhine, reduced Keiser-Lauter, Oppenheim, and Philipsburg; and, on the emperor's refusing to conclude a dishonorable peace, the conquering army proceeded to besiege Mentz, Frankerdal, Triers, Spire, and Worms.

Alarmed at these rapid conquests, the states of the empire resolved to declare war against the aggressors; and they were confirmed in this resolution by the courts of England, Sweden, Spain, and Denmark. The elector of Saxony, the landgrave

grave of Hesse, and the duke of Hanover, immediately marched some forces toward Frankfort; the bishop of Munster and the marquis of Brandenburg engaged to send two thousand eight hundred men into Cologne; the elector of Brandenburg assembled his best troops at Wesel; and the states of Holland sent upwards of eight thousand men into the country of Juliers and the electorate of Mentz; while Leopold ordered six regiments of cavalry and five of infantry to advance towards the Rhine.

The command of the troops in Hungary being given to prince Lewis of Baden, it was deemed advisable to assemble three armies on the Rhine; namely, thirty thousand men on the Upper Rhine, to assemble at Heilbron, under the elector of Bavaria; an equal number to assemble on the Lower Rhine, under the command of the elector of Brandenburg; and the third body, consisting of forty thousand men, to assemble near Frankfort, and be commanded by the duke of Lorraine.

The electors of Saxony and Bavaria and the landgrave of Hesse arriving at the camp, it was resolved to undertake the siege of Mentz, as the allied armies by their situation might be easily united. The town was accordingly invested on the sixteenth of July, and the imperialists laboured at the trenches for several days without much annoyance, but on the tenth of August the besieged made a sally, which proved fatal to upwards of two hundred soldiers, and several officers; and on the eighteenth, three thousand of the best troops of the garrison put five hundred men to the sword, nailed two pieces of cannon, ruined the works of the besiegers, and posted the grand guards of the cavalry at the place where the trenches had been first opened. These

A. D. 1689.

 misfortunes,

misfortunes, however, were superseded by the vigilance of the imperial generals, and the garrison were compelled to demand a capitulation after a siege of seven weeks. The conquest of this place was soon followed by the reduction of Bonn; and the duke of Lorraine proposed to besiege Terderbach, but the allies declining any new action during that campaign, the troops retired into winter quarters.

In the mean time, the prince of Baden gained three successive victories over the infidels in Hungary, forced their camp, and seized all their baggage, military stores, and provisions. He likewise took possession of Nissa and Vidin, and stationed six regiments in Walachia, in order to protect the hospodar from the incursions of the Tartars.

A. D. 1690. Leopold having convoked a diet at Augsburg, earnestly exhorted the electors to nominate a king of the Romans; observing, that such a measure was indispensably necessary for disappointing the ambitious hopes of Louis XIV. and securing the tranquillity of the empire. He proposed his son Joseph king of Hungary as a candidate, with a proviso, that if the imperial throne should become vacant before he attained his eighteenth year, the vicars of the empire should govern in his name till he arrived at that age. This proposition occasioned some warm debates; but at length the princes determined to gratify their sovereign, and Joseph was crowned on the twenty-sixth of January, with the accustomed ceremonies. About three months after this event, the duke of Lorraine died in the forty-eighth year of his age, and the command of the imperial army devolved upon the elector of Bavaria.

Meanwhile

Meanwhile the grand-signor, having declared Tekeli vaivode of Transylvania and chosen a new vizir, made great preparations for the ensuing campaign; and his arms were, for some time, attended with considerable success. General Heisler undertook, with a body of four thousand men, to check the progress of Tekeli, who appeared upon the frontiers of Transylvania; but the vaivode possessed such a superior force, that the imperialists were soon cut in pieces, and Heisler himself was taken prisoner. This defeat obliged the prince of Baden to pass the Danube at Semendria, and during his absence Nissa and Vidin fell into the hands of the enemy. The grand-vizir, also, took that opportunity of laying siege to Belgrade; and the confusion occasioned by an accidental explosion of a powder magazine enabled him to carry the place by assault.

A. D. 1691.

While Catinat, one of the French generals, was employed in ravaging the territories of the duke of Savoy, Leopold had ordered the prince of Baden to watch the motions of the grand-vizir, who, at the head of sixty thousand Turks, designed to pass the Save and besiege Esseck. The prince earnestly wished for an engagement, but the vizir contented himself with harassing his enemies by slight skirmishes, and intercepting their convoys. This he executed so effectually, that two hundred waggons loaded with provisions fell into his hands, and the imperialists were consequently reduced to great extremities. On the nineteenth of August, however, the prince resolved to force the Turkish camp; and his soldiers acquitted themselves with such extraordinary gallantry, that the enemy was eventually compelled

compelled to retire, and the grand-vizir himself was slain in the action.

The ensuing campaign proved more fortunate to the imperialists. Colonel Poland defeated a body of Tartars, on the frontiers of Transylvania, and reduced Garentzebs; count Serau took the fortress of Calo by assault; and the prince of Baden compelled Great Waradin to surrender on capitulation. The allies afterwards encamped in an advantageous situation near Peterwaradin, and watched the motions of the new vizir, whom they resolved to attack in his intrenchments; but the heavy rains that ensued obliged them to abandon that project, and put their troops into winter quarters.

A. D. 1692. Whilst Louis XIV. was employed at the siege of Namur, and the duke of Savoy was raising contributions in Dauphiné, the interests of the German Protestants were considerably strengthened by the creation of a ninth electorate, in favor of the duke of Hanover, who had entered into the grand alliance, and promised great supplies against France and the infidels, on condition that he should be made an elector of the empire. This nobleman was supported in his claim by William king of England, and the electors of Saxony and Brandenburg; but the other electors, and the college of cities, opposed him with great warmth, and expressed their astonishment at the conduct of the emperor, in attempting to erect a new electorate without the consent of the states. Leopold, however, paid no attention to their remonstrances, but gave the investiture to Ernest Augustus, with the title of elector of Brunswic and great marshal of the empire.

Early in the ensuing spring, the French army passed

passed the Rhine near Philipsburg, and the marquis de Chamilly encamped before Heidelberg; while the duke de Lorges, at the head of thirty thousand men, crossed the mountains in order to oppose the prince of Baden. The marquis having gained the suburbs of Heidelberg, and killed about five hundred of the garrison, entered the town, and compelled the governor to surrender on capitulation. The articles being signed, and the garrison conducted to Wimpsen, the French reduced the castle to ashes, not sparing even the tombs of the electors and Palatine princes. About this time the duke of Savoy was defeated by Catinat, at Marsaglia; and the approach of the grand-vizir with a numerous army obliged the duke de Croy to raise the siege of Belgrade.

Pursuant to the advice of the prince of Baden, Leopold resolved to have a fleet this year upon the Danube; but his finances being exhausted, he was obliged to grant commissions to private adventurers, which proved extremely injurious to commerce. It was also found necessary to levy a new tax upon Hungary, in order to support the expences of the war; and the court of Vienna was so completely embarrassed for want of money, that very serious consequences might have been expected, had not some loyal noblemen borrowed considerable sums upon their own credit, to pay the garrisons of Peterwaradin and the adjacent cities. A. D. 1694.

Meanwhile the grand-vizir passed the Save, and invested Peterwaradin with an army of ninety thousand men, while his fleet of one hundred and ten vessels advanced within cannon shot of the imperialists; but he was severely harassed by perpetual skirmishes with the German forces, and the heavy

heavy rains which came on about the end of September compelled him to abandon his enterprize.

France having suffered severely by two deficient harvests, the common people were reduced to great extremities; and Louis perceived the necessity of effecting a general pacification, or at least a separate peace with some of the confederates. Accordingly, he made some overtures to the duke of Savoy, and employed the mediation of the kings of Denmark and Sweden for a peace with the German princes; but the preliminary propositions appeared so unsatisfactory, that the allies resolved to prosecute the war with unremitting vigor.

Whilst the prince of Orange was employed in the reduction of Dixmude, and some other places in the bishopric of Liege, the mareschal de Lorges, having passed the Neckar, burnt the town of Laudenburg, and ravaged the adjacent country. He then formed a design of surrounding the imperial army, and ordered the marquis d'Uxelles to fall upon their rear, whilst he himself attacked them in front; but the prince of Baden, suspecting his intention, immediately repassed the Rhine, and a sudden swell of that river precluded the possibility of a pursuit.

A. D. 1695. In Montserrat, the duke of Savoy and prince Eugene undertook the reduction of Casal, with an army of twelve thousand men, and twenty-four pieces of cannon; but after the siege was considerably advanced, they were compelled, by a heavy fall of snow, to return into winter quarters. In the month of June, however, they again took the field, and the town surrendered on capitulation.

Meanwhile the imperialists in Hungary were obliged

obliged to remain upon the defensive: for the Turkish army amounted to upwards of a hundred thousand men; the fleet upon the Danube was unserviceable for want of sailors; the court of Vienna was still perplexed for money; and many officers refused to join their regiments till they had assurances of receiving their arrears.

In the beginning of August, the elector of Saxony marched to Peterwaradin, and from thence to the assistance of Veterani, who guarded the frontiers of Transylvania; but the Turks having made themselves masters of Titoul and Lippa, came up with Veterani before the elector's arrival, and defeated him with considerable loss.

The intrigues of the French court, seconded by the pope's nuncio and the Venetian envoy, proved successful in detaching the duke of Savoy from the grand alliance. Accordingly, a treaty was published under the title of the neutrality of Italy; the allies began to retire out of a country where they were regarded as enemies; and the duke, after requesting Leopold to accede to the neutrality, joined his forces with those of France. Thus, by an adventure scarcely paralleled in history, the same general commanded two contending armies in one campaign. The subsequent siege of Valentia obliged the allies to evacuate Italy, and hastened the general pacification of the following year.

In the mean time, the elector of Saxony, who commanded in Hungary, resolved to attack the grand-vizir's army, which was encamped in the plain of Temeswaer. He accordingly ordered six battalions, supported by two regiments of dragoons, to force the intrenchments, but a body of Turkish cavalry soon compelled them to retire, and the janissaries

nissaries having penetrated to their second line, threw the whole army into confusion. The imperialists now prepared to repass the Beghe, but many of their bravest troops were cut off in the attempt; and they were so perpetually harassed in their march, that it was with extreme difficulty they effected a retreat to Ollasch. Shortly after this occurrence, the elector of Saxony renounced Lutheranism, and was chosen to succeed John Sobieski on the throne of Poland.

The French, having withdrawn their troops from Italy, ordered Catinat to undertake the siege of Aeth, in Flanders, with forty thousand men, while Boufflers and Villeroy, with two other armies, opposed the progress of the allies. Aeth was soon reduced, and the victors proposed to take possession of the post of Anderlach, which might have facilitated the reduction of Brussels and Vilvorde; but finding the allies advantageously situated, they thought proper to alter their design.

A.D. 1697. The plenipotentiaries of the allies being arrived at the Hague, while those of France resided at Delft, it was deemed expedient to hold the conferences at Ryswick; and baron Lillieroot, who acted as mediator, appointed the first conference to be held on the ninth of May. The imperial ministers made a tedious answer to the plan proposed by France, as Leopold was desirous of continuing the grand alliance, to assist him in placing his youngest son upon the throne of Spain; but Louis having formed a similar design in favor of the duke of Anjou, resolved to hasten a pacification, and the emperor was ultimately compelled to ratify a treaty which had already received the approbation of his allies.

By the treaty of Ryswick, Louis XIV. agreed, that

that the fort of Keil, with Philipsburg, Friburg, and all his other conquests beyond Alsace, should be restored to the empire; Leopold ceded Strasburg, and all its territories on the left side of the Rhine, to the crown of France; and the duke of Neuberg was re-established in the Palatinate.

During these negociations, the grand-signor marched from Belgrade with an intention of besieging Peterwaradin, while his fleet of one hundred and six vessels sailed up the Danube, and passed the Save; but on the approach of prince Eugene he changed his design, and made an irruption into Transylvania. Eugene continued his march to watch the enemy's motions, and on their forming an encampment near Zenta he resolved to draw them to an engagement. The Turks being defended by three intrenchments and seventy pieces of cannon, resisted the attack of the imperialists with extraordinary vigor, and returned their fire with unshaken resolution for upwards of two hours; but their intrenchments were eventually forced, and they were utterly routed with the loss of thirty thousand men. The spoil taken from the infidels, on this occasion, consisted of fifteen thousand tents, the military chest, the archives of the sultan's chancery, nine hundred waggons, six thousand camels laden with provision, seven thousand horses, and seventy-two heavy cannon. After this brilliant exploit, prince Eugene took the capital of Bosnia by surprise, destroyed the fortresses of Dobay, Magloy, and Brandack; and led his victorious troops into winter quarters. The ensuing campaign passed over without any action, and a peace was, soon afterward, concluded between the emperor and the sultan at Carlowitz.

A.D. 1701. Louis XIV. having accomplished his design of placing Philip of Anjou on the throne of Spain, ordered French garrisons into the Spanish Netherlands and the duchy of Milan; and at the same time sent a squadron of vessels to the West Indies. Leopold was highly exasperated at the seizure of the Milanese, which devolved to him by the death of the king of Spain, and he resolved to assert his right to that territory by force of arms. Accordingly he ordered a body of twenty-nine thousand men to march into Italy, under the command of prince Eugene, and secured the elector of Brandenburg to his interest, by consenting to acknowledge him as king of Prussia. He also endeavoured to negociate alliances with the other powers of Europe; but the kings of Denmark, Sweden, and Poland, refused to engage in a league against France, and the Swiss and Venetians declared that they would observe a strict neutrality. After some time, however, William king of England concluded a treaty with the emperor, and the states of Holland; by which it was agreed, that if, in the space of two months, Louis did not make any satisfaction, the parties concerned should mutually assist each other with their whole strength.

Meanwhile prince Eugene, hearing that the mareschal Villeroy had repaired to Milan, in order to be present at some public diversions, formed the design of surprising Cremona. Accordingly he ordered a body of eight thousand men to be ready at a certain time to take possession of the bridge upon the Po, whilst he sent a small detachment through the ruins of an old aqueduct, and by that means obtained admission into the city before the garrison had any apprehension of his approach.

approach. The subsequent conflict between the garrison and imperialists was extremely obstinate; and Villeroy, who had just returned from Milan, was taken prisoner. But, as the German troops who had been appointed to seize the bridge arrived too late, Eugene was compelled to retreat with all possible expedition.

Queen Anne succeeding to the throne of England, supported the engagements of her illustrious predecessor, and, on the fourth of May, declared war against France and Spain; and the Dutch, who had hitherto contented themselves with furnishing some auxiliaries, now became principals in the war.

Whilst the French army was encamped at Cleves, the duke of Marlborough took upon him the command of the confederates, and endeavoured to bring the enemy to an engagement; but the deputies of the States General having represented to him that it would be more for the advantage of Holland to recover some towns in Spanish Guelderland, he detached several parties, who soon made themselves masters of Venloo, Stevenswert, Maseick, and Ruremond. Mareschal Boufflers, fearing that the allies had a design upon Liege, posted himself at Tongres, in order to secure that place; but, in spite of all his exertions, the town was compelled to capitulate, and the citadel was, soon afterward, taken by assault. About this time, the king of the Romans effected the reduction of Landau, and left the imperial army at Bischweiller, under the command of the prince of Baden.

As the hostilities between Leopold and Louis XIV. did not directly regard the empire, but only the succession to the crown of Spain, several of the German princes had hitherto stood neutral;

but on the elector of Bavaria declaring publicly for France, the diet at Ratisbon resolved to espouse the cause of their sovereign, and requested him to proceed against the elector according to the constitution of the empire. Meanwhile the French army took possession of Neuberg on the Rhine, and, after an obstinate conflict with the prince of Baden, made themselves masters of Triers and Traerbach; while on the other side, the prince of Hesse Cassel marched from Liege at the head of ten thousand men, and retook Zinch, Brisac, and Andernach. About the same time, the duke of Savoy abandoned the interests of France, and concluded a treaty of alliance with the emperor.

Whilst the elector of Bavaria was employed in defending his territories from the imperialists, mareschal Villars had crossed the Rhine, and taken the fortress of Keil, together with several redoubts. Afterwards attacking the lines of the prince of Baden at Stolhoffen, he was repulsed with considerable loss, but he contrived to join the elector by the passes of the Black Forest, and obtained a decisive victory over count Stirum, while another army commanded by the duke of Burgundy laid siege to Brisac.

Upon the Lower Rhine, and in Flanders, the affairs of the confederates were more successful. Count Lotum, general of the Prussians, made himself master of Rhenberg, and blocked up Guelders; the duke of Marlborough obliged Bonn to surrender after a vigorous siege; and the French were compelled to evacuate Maestricht, after having blown up the walls and tower. A desperate engagement took place, about the same time, between the forces of general Opdam and those of the

the mareschal Boufflers, but as the loss was nearly equal on both sides, each party claimed the victory.

Shortly after the reduction of Landau by the French, Leopold ceded his pretensions to the Spanish monarchy in favor of the archduke Charles, who was received at the court of England with great magnificence, and sailed from thence to Portugal with about nine thousand men. Upon his arrival at Lisbon, he published a manifesto, promising a pardon to all who should abandon the interests of Anjou, while Philip V. took still more vigorous measures, and reduced several towns on the frontiers of Portugal. At the same time the prince of Darmstadt, having made an unsuccessful attempt on Barcelona, sailed with the combined fleet to Gibraltar, which he reduced, and surrendered into the hands of the English. A. D. 1704.

While the duke of Vendome was rapidly extending his conquests in Italy, fresh disturbances broke out among the Hungarians, and the malecontents, after ravaging the duchy of Austria, pushed their incursions to the very gates of Vienna. Ragotski, who had recently escaped from prison, commanded an army of twenty thousand men; general Forgarts appeared at the head of eight thousand; and count Caroli, with Esterhagi and Berecenni, were employed in assembling an army of thirty-eight thousand men. So formidable an armament elevated the courage and raised the demands of the Hungarians; insomuch that they grew indifferent to an accommodation, and seemed disposed to drive matters to extremity.

In the mean time, the elector of Bavaria occupied the chief posts on the Neckar and Danube; mareschal Tallard penetrated, by forced marches, through the Black Forest; and the empire would,

in all probability, have sunk under the arms of France, had not the duke of Marlborough hastened to join the prince of Baden, and turned the balance of victory by his extraordinary exertions. Several advantageous propositions were now made to the elector of Bavaria, in order to detach him from the interests of Louis XIV., but, although the battle of Blenheim was lost after prodigious slaughter, the electress was obliged to implore the protection of the imperial court at the price of half her dominions, and the electorate was reduced to the utmost distress, he remained firm and unmoved in his resolution.

After mature deliberation, the confederates resolved to undertake the siege of Landau, and here the brave defence of Laubanis excited the astonishment of all Europe. This intrepid officer, though labouring under bodily infirmity and the misfortune of blindness, behaved with all the ardor and impetuosity of youth. He replied to a menacing summons sent by the king of the Romans, "that he could not lose the glorious opportunity of perishing in the service of his country, and erecting the most honourable monument to his own memory on the ruins of Landau." His subsequent conduct was perfectly consistent with this assertion; for he obstinately defended the last remaining work, causing himself to be led to the trenches in order to feel the progress of the enemy, and giving directions for sallies, which his soldiers obeyed without murmuring, and executed with irresistible fury. At length, however, Laubanis was wounded—every inch of ground was immediately lost; the garrison began to sink beneath their fatigue; and the enemy made vigorous preparations for a general assault. These circum-

stances

stances induced the governor to prevent an unnecessary effusion of blood by an honourable capitulation; and his proposals were readily accepted, after the allies had lost nearly ten thousand men in the prosecution of the siege.

This campaign terminated with the battle of Cassano, in which prince Eugene was defeated, after having made the most arduous exertions for the restoration of the emperor's affairs in Italy. Greatly inferior in force, distressed for necessaries, and supported only by his own genius, he encountered Vendome, the best general of France, at the head of an army flushed with conquest; but his prodigies of valour now proved unavailing, and his gallant followers were overpowered by numbers.

The princes of Germany now began to reprobate the war, as having been productive of nothing but useless victories, slaughter, and desolation; the republic of Holland started several difficulties respecting her quota of troops and money; the prince of Hesse insisted that his men should never be commanded by Dutch officers; and the prince of Baden refused to acknowledge that superiority which the other inferior officers of the empire considered as due to the States General. Such was the distracted state of the court of Vienna when the emperor Leopold died in the forty-seventh year of his reign. This prince is said to have maintained the affection of his subjects, and conciliated the esteem of his neighbours by his affable behaviour, and it is certain that his prudence often preserved the diadem which tottered on his head.

Upon the accession of Joseph to the imperial throne, it was generally expected that a termination would be put to the war, A. D. 1705.

which

which had already desolated Germany, and impoverished a considerable part of Europe: but the opportunity of penetrating into France was now lost; the English peremptorily refused to listen to an accommodation; and Louis was not sufficiently humbled to propose such conditions to the emperor as he could with honour accept.

To compromise the differences with the Hungarians, Joseph dismissed those ministers that were attached to the interests of the Jesuits, and offered to convoke a general diet, where the pretensions of the discontented chiefs might be examined, and all grievances taken into consideration. But the malecontents declared, that they would hearken to no proposals till the emperor should engage to banish all the Jesuits, to restore to the people their ancient right of electing their own sovereigns, and to give ample security that no foreign troops should ever be quartered in the kingdom, or employments bestowed but upon Hungarians, except in cases where the diet should think proper to gratify extraordinary services by preferment. The consequence of this declaration being dreaded by the confederates, they undertook to mediate an accommodation, and conferences were actually opened at Tyrnaw; but some inconsiderable advantages encouraged the emperor to rise in his demands, and the negociation was suddenly broken off.

General Heberville, having raised the blockade of Waradin, advanced within sight of the malecontents, in the neighbourhood of Scibo, and determined to draw them to an engagement. The enemy sustained his first attack with extraordinary firmness, and twice repulsed his troops with great slaughter; but being at length overpowered by the

the imperial cavalry, they were obliged to abandon their camp with precipitation. This victory was soon followed by the total reduction of Transylvania.

Whilst Vienna rung with rejoicings for this brilliant success, Lower Hungary, Moravia, and the hereditary dominions of the house of Austria, were literally desolated by the rebels; and such crowds of Austrian peasants flocked to their standard, that they bade defiance to opposition, and positively refused an armistice which was proposed by the mediators.

In the mean time, mareschal Villars was at the head of a formidable army on the Moselle; the banks of the Rhine were covered by the numerous troops of Marsin; the elector of Bavaria had taken Huy; and Liege must probably have surrendered, had not the resistless arm of Marlborough interposed for its preservation. That nobleman, with his accustomed intrepidity, forced the elector's lines near Messeling on the Maine, and obliged him to retire in disorder towards Louvain. His glorious ardor, however, was checked by the unseasonable caution of the Hollanders, and he justly complained that they wrested victory out of his hands. Violent altercations ensued between Marlborough and the prince of Baden, and a separation of the allied army enabled Villars to reinforce the elector of Bavaria with thirty battalions and fifty squadrons.

During these transactions, Joseph found himself involved in a dispute with the Roman pontiff. Cavaletti, one of the imperial ambassador's domestics at Rome, had been thrown into prison for striking some officers of justice, and the affair was represented at Vienna in so serious a manner, that the

the count de Lamberg was immediately recalled, and the pope's nuncio was desired to quit the imperial court. This trivial circumstance was sufficient to revive an ancient controversy; and the emperor now demanded that Palavicini, governor of Rome, should be banished; that a process formed against the marquis del Vasto, who had been vested with the character of ambassador from the archduke Charles, should be burnt by the common executioner; that his holiness should immediately send a cardinal to apologise for his conduct; and that Ferrara should admit an imperial garrison. Had Joseph persisted in these demands, the pope would, in all probability, have been effectually humbled; but, after some time, the affair seemed to sink into oblivion.

Meanwhile Bavaria groaned under the most cruel and tyrannical oppressions. A treaty had been concluded between the electress and the imperialists, by which all acts of hostility on both sides were to cease; the elector was to be regarded merely as a general of Louis XIV. at the head of a French army; the Bavarians were to be confirmed in all their privileges; and the revenues of Munich and its dependencies were to remain untouched, as constituting the support of the princess and the electoral family. But the Austrian forces had no sooner taken possession of the country, than the electoral palace was stripped of all its rich furniture; the nobility and people were oppressed with exorbitant contributions; many individuals were imprisoned, upon suspicion of concealing their property; and even the tombs were violated in quest of hidden treasure. Loud complaints were consequently made to the imperial commissaries, and crowds of sufferers poured out

their

their grievances in the most pathetic manner: but their sighs, tears, and piteous exclamations, were treated with brutal neglect; and the aggressors endeavoured to justify their proceedings, by charging the Bavarians with a dangerous conspiracy.

After these flagrant acts of injustice had for some time been committed with impunity, count de Lowenstein, governor of the province, published an edict, enjoining all the young men, from the age of eighteen to thirty-five, to appear at certain places, in order to be draughted for recruits to the regiments in Hungary and Italy. The peasants, alarmed at this cruel ordinance, endeavoured to elude compliance by a temporary concealment; but their evasion was instantly construed into an act of rebellion, and all the gaols in Bavaria were soon crowded with unfortunate wretches, who had been dragged out of churches, monasteries, and other places of refuge; while their houses were pillaged, and their little magazines of provision inhumanly destroyed. Distracted by these calamities, and rendered desperate by the pressure of extreme want, the sufferers at length resolved to unite for their own defence, and join the Bohemian malecontents against their common enemy. This plan being immediately reduced to execution, an army of twenty thousand men took the field, and made themselves masters of several important places; but, finding it impossible to make a long resistance against regular troops, they laid down their arms, upon assurances of a general amnesty. The Austrian faith, however, was soon violated; and the unhappy leaders of the insurrection were treated with the most savage barbarity. At this time the electress, who had been to visit her mother, the queen of Poland, demanded leave to re-

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turn to her dominions; but just as she arrived on the frontiers, she was prohibited from pursuing her journey, and deprived of the poor satisfaction of mingling her tears with those of her faithful subjects.

A. D. 1706. In the mean time Joseph, having constrained the aulic council to proscribe the electors of Bavaria and Cologne, convened a numerous assembly to witness the ceremonial of their disgrace. Being seated in his imperial throne, he caused the acts to be recited by which Leopold had invested the proscribed princes with the electoral dignity: he then tore them in pieces, dashed them on the ground, and directed the heralds at arms to throw them into the street. The decree of the aulic council was then publicly proclaimed in all the principal streets of Vienna; a price was set upon the head of the elector of Bavaria; and the same measure would have been taken against the elector of Cologne, had not his ecclesiastical character exempted him from such severity. These rigorous proceedings, however, were strongly reprobated by several of the German princes, and many of them expressed great astonishment at the emperor's inflexibility.

M. Villars, being apprised of these circumstances, determined to use his utmost endeavours for restoring the affairs of the electors, and demonstrating the injustice of their sentence. Having advanced by rapid marches along the Sar, he compelled the prince of Baden to retire precipitately toward Drusenheim; and the imperialists were driven from place to place, without the credit of striking a single blow, or making the least resistance. The French commander availed himself of this general consternation, to gain possession of

several

several fortresses between the rivers Moter and Spirebach, and to recover Haguenau from the enemy. About the same time, the Hungarian malecontents, having forced the intrenchments of Guy de Staremberg, made an irruption into Austria, and concerted a scheme for seizing the emperor as he was hunting in the forest of Eberdorf: but this project accidentally miscarried.

The affairs of the imperialists in Italy were not more fortunate: the French, under M. Berwick, had gained such a decided superiority, that they actually meditated the conquest of all Piedmont, while prince Eugene found it equally impracticable to animate the councils or quicken the measures of the court of Vienna. At length, however, the sum of 25,000*l.* sterling was borrowed from the English; and Eugene repaired with a numerous army to Turin, at the very moment that the capital was on the verge of destruction. This was indeed an extraordinary exertion, and the rapidity with which he recovered all the recent conquests must indisputably transmit his memory with glory to the latest posterity: but the duke of Marlborough rivalled his fame at the battle of Ramilies, in which Villeroy was utterly defeated, with the loss of his cannon, baggage, and a prodigious number of men, who were either killed or taken prisoners. A. D. 1707.

The long duration of a war in which all Europe had some concern entirely drained the provinces of money, and incapacitated them from furnishing the usual supplies. But the imperial and British courts, and the States General, were not yet satiated with conquest. The circles of the Upper and Lower Rhine, with those of Swabia and Franconia, complained of the impracticability of de-

fending the frontiers unless the stipulated forces were regularly levied; and it was therefore resolved, that an army of forty thousand men should be raised for this purpose. Magazines were also ordered to be erected at Philipsburg; Landau was to be well fortified and garrisoned; and recruits were to be sent off with the greatest expedition, to complete all the imperial regiments in Savoy. At the same time, the emperor ceded Valencia and Alexandria, with their dependencies, to Victor Amadeus duke of Savoy, and invested the archduke with the duchy of Milan.

Upon the demise of Lewis prince of Baden, the command of the imperial army on the Rhine was given to the margrave of Brandenburg Bareith; but as his troops did not exceed twenty thousand men, and most of these were newly levied and indifferently armed, it appeared impossible to resist the superior force of M. Villars and to defend the lines at Stolhoffen, which covered the territory of Baden Dourlach, and extended to the impassable mountains of the Black Forest. Villars was perfectly acquainted with the state of the imperial army, and amused them with several feints and false attacks, while he was assembling twenty battalions and forty-five squadrons, under the count de Broglio, at Lauterberg. Filling sixty boats with grenadiers, he hastened to the isle of Newburg, whence he chased the imperialists, after a short resistance; and, on his preparing to attack the lines, the margrave retired with the utmost precipitation, leaving the enemy in possession of all the strong works of Stolhoffen, together with all the tents, artillery, baggage, and ammunition. Villars consequently became master of the whole marquisate of Baden, and soon afterward penetrated into

into the duchy of Wirtemberg, which he taxed at the rate of two millions of livres.

Meanwhile the circles of Swabia and Franconia remonstrated to the diet at Ratisbon upon the dangers which threatened their territories, and intimated, that if speedy measures were not taken for their defence they should be obliged to accept a neutrality, which had been offered by the king of France. These representations, and the subsequent assurance that Baden and some other frontier towns had resolved to conclude a separate pacification, effectually alarmed the diet, and induced them to exert their utmost vigilance for preventing so dangerous a breach in the states of the empire. After mature deliberation, it was resolved that the margrave of Bareith should hasten to join the troops of Westphalia and other circles, assembling in the neighbourhood of Mentz, and that, after this junction, he should proceed to the Rhine; as it was expected that M. Villars, who had now advanced into the interior of Germany, would follow the margrave's route. This project was immediately reduced to execution; and the imperial general passed through Franconia with such rapidity, as baffled all the endeavours of Villars to obstruct his progress. The French commander, however, sent a detachment of four thousand men to defend the lines at Lauterberg, while the count de Broglio secured Lauffen on the Neckar, and the mareschal in person hastened to Dourlach. His approach frustrated the design which the imperialists had formed against Alsace, and enabled him to lay the whole Palatinate under contribution. Shortly after these transactions, the margrave of Bareith resigned his command, which

was bestowed, with the title of veldt-mareschal, on the elector of Hanover.

Meanwhile the affairs of Spain bore a very gloomy aspect. The battle of Almanza was lost; all the designs of the confederates were rendered abortive, by the superior vigilance and genius of M. Berwick; and the kingdoms of Arragon and Valentia were obliged to submit to the conqueror. These misfortunes, however, were in some measure counterbalanced by the revolution in Naples, which raised the archduke Charles to the sovereignty of that kingdom.

Whilst the imperial diet was distracted by altercations respecting the prosecution of the war, the king of Portugal, the duke of Savoy, prince Eugene, the prince of Hesse-Cassel, and the duke of Wirtemberg, were all clamorous for money, troops, and other necessaries. All were equally embarrassed, and all their projects were completely at a stand; but nothing could quicken the proceedings of the Germanic body. Without the aid of England, the confederates must inevitably have been ruined, and all the brilliant victories of Eugene and Marlborough rendered abortive. But the British parliament adhered strictly to their engagements, and exerted themselves with such activity, that the combined armies were at length put in motion. In Flanders the battle of Oudenarde was gained under the auspices of Marlborough and Eugene, though the enemy were headed by a prince of the blood, and assisted by the duke of Vendome, who was generally considered as the prop of Louis's declining glory. Lisle, Ghent, and other cities, were also speedily reduced; and the impetuosity of the confederates seemed utterly irresistible.

Hungary,

Hungary, unfortunately, was still the theatre of anarchy and rebellion. The malecontents, though frequently defeated, obstinately refused to listen to an accommodation; and the court of Vienna was alarmed by intelligence of their having forced the lines of Petronelle, carried Fort Rust by assault, and plundered all the towns and villages to a considerable extent. Their armies, their courage, and their prospects, seemed to be daily augmented; and they declared their resolution of sustaining every extremity rather than renounce their pretensions.

During these transactions, the Roman pontiff thundered out an excommunication against some imperial officers who had exacted contributions from the clergy of Parma; and took this opportunity of wreaking his vengeance for the late insult which Joseph had offered to his authority. But the emperor treated his menaces with contempt, and made such formidable preparations for asserting his own rights, that the Italian states were immediately overwhelmed with consternation, and Clement was eventually compelled to sue for peace. About this time, the ninth electorate, which had been created by Leopold in favor of the duke of Hanover, was confirmed by the states of the empire; and the emperor Joseph was acknowledged to have a voice in the electoral college as king of Bohemia—an honour which none of his predecessors had enjoyed since Ladislaus.

A. D. 1709.

After an unsuccessful negociation between the courts of Versailles and Vienna, both sides prepared, with augmented fury, for the prosecution of the war. The confederates, under Eugene and Marlborough, were again victorious in the Netherlands: Villars lost the battle of Malplaquet; but it has been justly remarked,

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that he was formidable in his defeat, and stained deeply with blood the laurels gained by his enemies. On the Rhine, however, the imperialists were less successful; and count Thaun, who commanded in Italy, found it impossible to acquire any important advantage.

While the allies were prosecuting the war in Flanders, Louis XIV. made fresh overtures of peace by his secretary, the marquis de Torcy, but although he offered to accept some of the conditions which he had rejected in the preceding year, Joseph was still inexorable; and the confederates gradually rose in their demands, till at length they plainly declared, that no treaty of pacification could take effect, unless the most Christian king would contribute his assistance to dethrone his own grandson.

No sooner were the conferences broke off at Gertrudenburg, than the allies renewed hostilities in the Netherlands, and made themselves masters of Aire, St. Venant, and Bethune; but these advantages were purchased by the loss of twenty thousand men. Towards the Rhine no considerable action was performed; for the strength of the adverse armies was nearly equal, and the respective commanders were unwilling to hazard an engagement. In Hungary the affairs of the empire were rather more prosperous than in the preceding campaign; but the old obstructions to peace still remained, and all attempts to soothe the malecontents proved entirely fruitless.

Meanwhile the succours afforded by England enabled the archduke Charles to gain the victory of Saragossa, which must have established him on the Spanish throne had the advantages been properly pursued. But the arrival of De Vendome soon

soon restored the affairs of Philip V., and raised him from a fugitive prince to a triumphant monarch. The following note was written to him by Vendome on the night succeeding the battle:—"Sire, I have prepared for you the best and most glorious bed in which you ever slept." This bed was composed of colours and trophies taken from the enemy; and Philip actually reposed himself on it for several hours.

A. D. 1711.

The begining of this year was marked by a revolution in the English ministry; and the interests of Europe were sensibly affected by the death of the emperor, who fell a martyr to the small-pox and the unskilfulness of his physicians, in the prime of life. His character has been variously represented: but from a review of his actions we may pronounce him less gentle, mild, and affable, than his father; though his spirit and vivacity sometimes procured him the tribute of admiration. Impatient of opposition, he was haughty, active, and enterprising, and frequently pursued from motives of resentment what he had first undertaken from policy. His success augmented the pride of his disposition, and added fuel to a fire which had long burnt with extreme violence. In the space of five years he saw Lombardy subdued, Piedmont evacuated, Naples reduced, and the Netherlands conquered by his own arms and those of his allies. In his imperial capacity he certainly governed with more despotism than any of his predecessors, and the house of Bavaria was a monument of the inflexibility of his temper.

The emperor's death was announced, by circular letters, to the princes of Germany, and dispatches were immediately sent to England and Holland, where the imperial ministers laboured to demonstrate

strate that this event ought to effect no change in the views of the confederates. Her Britannic majesty, however, resolved on an accommodation with France; and many of the Germanic states insisted on the expediency of terminating a war, which had occasioned a prodigious effusion of blood, and entirely drained the empire of resources.

When the electoral college assembled, in order to supply the vacancy on the imperial throne, it was generally expected that their suffrages would be given in favor of the prince of Poland, who resided with great splendor at Frankfort; and whose noble air, obliging address, and unlimited munificence, had rendered him extremely popular. But while the eyes of all Europe were fixed upon this prince, it was discovered that he had merely visited Frankfort for his amusement, and had no intention of aspiring to the imperial dignity. The day of the election being fixed, the archduke Charles was proposed as a candidate, and the elector of Mentz gained for him all the votes by a decisive argument. "The empire," said he, "is a wife of high birth without a fortune. She requires a great expenditure for her maintenance; and the house of Austria alone possesses revenues adequate to that purpose."

A. D. 1711. Upon the first intimation of his election, Charles set out from Barcelona, and on his arrival at Frankfort he swore to observe the imperial capitulation in the manner it was proposed by the electors. The ceremony of his coronation was then performed with great magnificence, and several gold medals were distributed among the princes of the empire and the foreign ambassadors.

As the queen of England had acquainted her parliament with her pacific intentions, and Holland was

was upon the point of concluding a separate treaty, the new emperor found himself under the necessity of sustaining the entire weight of a war with France and Spain, or of accepting the terms offered by Louis. At this juncture it was indispensably necessary to appease the disturbances of Hungary; and the empress-dowager and count Palfi exerted themselves so vigorously in that design, that they eventually obtained a cessation of hostilities, by promising that prince Ragotski should receive full pardon and restitution of his estates, on his taking an oath of fidelity to the emperor; that religion should be maintained on the footing established by law; that the people should have free liberty to represent their grievances to the diet; and that, if Ragotski did not accept the amnesty within a limited time, all the rest of the nobility should be entitled to the advantages specified in the treaty.

This pacification was negociated, on the part of the Hungarians, by count Caroli; but as he had acted without the consent of Ragotski and his principal adherents, they disavowed his conduct, and prepared for continuing the war. Their design, however, was rendered abortive by want of troops, and the loss of several fortresses; and the revolt of Hungary was happily terminated, while Ragotski retired to England to enjoy the blessings of freedom and security.

After a congress had been held at Utrecht for the purpose of opening negociations between the hostile powers, the allies resolved to make some fresh exertions against the crown of France; and it was generally supposed that the queen of England, tired out with the clamours of her allies, would enter zealously into this measure: but Eugene entertained suspicions, and expressed his impatience

impatience at the mysterious conduct of the British officers. When the confederates had passed the Scheld, and encamped opposite to the enemy, Eugene proposed a junction between the English and Austrian forces; but this proposal was rejected; and, after some time, the duke of Ormond produced his orders not to act offensively. Exasperated at this discovery, the imperial and Dutch generals declared, they would prosecute the war without the queen's concurrence; and demonstrate to her that England was of less consequence to the alliance than she imagined. Having made this declaration they undertook the seige of Quesnoi, and pushed on their attacks with such vigor, that the garrison were compelled to surrender at discretion; while the duke of Ormond withdrew his army, and took possession of Dunkirk.

Elated by their success at Quesnoi, the allies resolved to attempt the reduction of Landreci, which was accordingly invested by the prince of Anhalt Dessau, with thirty-four battalions and thirty squadrons; while prince Eugene, with the remainder of the army, covered the siege, and took every precaution to ensure success. Mareschal Villars, however, soon obliged them to abandon their enterprize; and recovered all the conquests which they had made in three successive campaigns. About the same time, the emperor Charles was crowned king of Hungary, without the formality of an election, which he regarded as a mere ceremony; and with respect to Bohemia, he did not think even a coronation necessary to the complete investiture of the sovereignty. These proceedings excited such general discontent in Upper Hungary, that upwards of six hundred persons had recourse to arms; but they were immediately

suppressed

suppressed by two imperial regiments, and the court of Vienna took effectual precautions to over-awe the country.

Charles seems to have flattered himself that the French monarch, being advanced in years, and harassed by perpetual inquietudes, must soon finish his career, and that the subsequent minority would produce a revolution favorable to the empire. The Dutch also seemed rather desirous of extending the flames of war, than cherishing the blessings of tranquillity; and the influence of prince Eugene seemed to throw insurmountable obstacles in the way of a general pacification.

At this juncture, however, the duke of Savoy began to cool in his attachment toward the house of Austria. Tired with a war which only contributed to his ruin and the opposition to his own daughter's elevation, he resolved to commit his affairs into the hands of the queen of England, who immediately undertook to mediate his peace with Louis, and also to procure for him the crown of Sicily, and the reversion of the Spanish monarchy in default of male issue of the direct line. A treaty having been concluded to this effect, and the courts of Savoy and Portugal having acceded to the treaty of Utrecht, the queen drew off all her forces from Portugal and Catalonia; and, after mature deliberation, the States General resolved on a peace with France.

The negociations at Utrecht now assumed a more pleasing aspect, and most of the clouds which had been raised by jealousy or resentment were immediately dissipated. The congress was opened by a number of ministers who were equally famed for ability and elocution. All practised the utmost refinements of policy; each enforced his master's rights

rights with energetic zeal; and their perseverance eventually triumphed over all difficulties. Accordingly, after some violent altercations, it was agreed that the imperialists should evacuate Catalonia, and a neutrality take place in Italy; that an armistice should be published in Catalonia, and that, on the day of its publication, the imperialists should surrender Barcelona or Tarragona; that all prisoners on either side should be released; that an amnesty should be published in Spain; and that the utmost influence of her Britannic majesty, and the king of France, should be exerted to persuade Philip V. to leave the Catalans in full possession of their liberties.

A. D. 1713. The subsequent propositions respecting the cession of conquests were peremptorily refused by count Zinzendorf; and his conduct was approved at the court of Vienna, where the peace was violently contested, and her Britannic majesty was libelled in a most scandalous manner, for having withdrawn herself from the grand alliance. Sums of money were now borrowed for the prosecution of the war, and prince Eugene was again employed to check the arms of France; but these exertions proved totally unavailing; and the reduction of Keiserlauter, Linenga, Volstein, and Friburg, convinced the emperor of his own inferiority, and the impossibility of prosecuting a claim against two powerful monarchies, in which he must rely entirely upon the abilities of his general, unsupported by men or money. Eugene was, therefore, permitted to open a negociation with M. Villars, at the castle of Rastadt; and, after a few days, a definitive treaty was concluded, by which it was agreed that Philipsburg and Friburg should be restored to the emperor; that all the French conquests

quests on this side the river Queisch should be confirmed to his most Christian majesty; and that the proscribed electors should be reinstated in all their former dignities and possessions. Such was the termination of a sanguinary war which had continued almost during three reigns, and involved all the powers of Europe. During the confusions which it occasioned, the emperors exerted themselves to extend their prerogatives to the prejudice of the Germanic body; and it is highly probable, that if France had not acted with such resolution on behalf of the proscribed electors, the privileges of the empire would have been totally subjected to the arbitrary decrees of the house of Austria.

CHAP. VI.

From the Treaty of Rastadt, to the general Peace of 1801.

A. D. 1714. IMMEDIATELY after the conclusion of the treaty of Rastadt, Charles was alarmed by some hostile proceedings of the Turks, but these were soon repulsed by the sword of Eugene; and two decisive victories obtained by that hero at Peterwaradin and Belgrade, obliged the infidels to accede to a pacification. From this time the emperor was continually employed in forming projects for the preservation and increase of his hereditary dominions in Italy; and the accession of the house of Hanover to the throne of England, gave him a very decisive importance in the affairs of Europe. His knowledge of this advantage rendered him assuming, and his haughty conduct occasioned a breach between him and George I., which threatened very serious consequences: but as the aggrandisement of Hanover was a favorite object with the British court, and Charles was equally desirous of establishing the Pragmatic Sanction in favor of his daughter, mutual concessions were made during the reign of George II., and the elector of Saxony was persuaded to relinquish his claims upon the Austrian succession.

Some time after this accommodation, Charles entered into a fresh war with the Turks, under the expectation of indemnifying himself for some great sacrifices which he had been compelled to make to the princes of Bourbon. But, on this occasion,

occasion his hopes were entirely groundless. Prince Eugene, who had formerly infused vigor and emulation into the imperial troops, was now dead; and the war was carried on with very ill success, till, at length, cardinal Fleury undertook to mediate a peace, and obtained better terms for Germany than she had any reason to expect. Having ratified this treaty, and given his eldest daughter in marriage to the duke of Lorraine, Charles paid the debt of nature in the twenty-ninth year of his reign.

The death of this prince was followed by very serious commotions; and all that he had so long laboured for must have been overthrown, had it not been for the firmness and resolution of his Britannic majesty. The young king of Prussia marched with a powerful army into Silesia, which he asserted had been unjustly wrested from his family; and France, Spain, and the elector of Bavaria, set up several claims, which were altogether incompatible with the Pragmatic Sanction. A. D. 1740.

The imperial throne, after having been long vacant, was at length filled up by the elector of Bavaria, who assumed the title of Charles VII.: while the French took possession of the capital of Bohemia; and the queen of Hungary was compelled to make a formal renunciation of the duchy of Silesia to the king of Prussia. Her youth and beauty, however, made a sensible impression on the hearts of the Hungarians, and induced them to declare unanimously in her favor. Accordingly, her generals acted with such extraordinary vigilance that the French were soon chased out of Bohemia; George II., at the head of an English and Hanoverian army, gained the famous A. D. 1742.

famous battle of Dettingen; and Charles VII. was reduced to such extremities, that he would have concluded peace with the queen of Hungary upon any terms that were not absolutely injurious to his honour. But that princess imprudently refused to listen to any accommodation, till the king of Prussia led a numerous army into Bohemia, and subdued the greatest part of that kingdom, under pretence of supporting the imperial dignity.

A.D. 1745. Upon the demise of Charles VII. and the subsequent election of the duke of Lorraine, consort to her Hungarian majesty, the king of Prussia asserted, that the empress-queen, the empress of Russia, and the king of Poland, as elector of Saxony, had entered into a secret convention to strip him of his dominions, and divide them among themselves. On this pretence he took up arms against the king of Poland, defeated his troops, chased him out of Saxony, and held the city of Dresden as a legal conquest, till his Britannic majesty interfered and negociated an accommodation. By the subsequent treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle, the duchy of Silesia was guaranteed to Prussia: but, as the empress of Russia happened to coincide in sentiment with the king of Poland and the empress-queen, and as France engaged to support their designs, a fresh war was kindled in the empire.

A.D. 1756. The king of Prussia, encouraged by the promise of an annual subsidy from the British parliament, rushed like a resistless torrent into Saxony, defeated the imperial general at Lowositz, and again compelled the elector to retire into Poland. After this exploit he was put to the ban of the empire, and the armies of France and Russia hastened to support the imperial arms: but,

but, instead of shrinking from the danger, or even lowering his pretensions, the Prussian monarch made such exertions as are scarcely to be paralleled in history. Having made a fresh irruption into Bohemia, he defeated an army consisting of a hundred thousand Austrians, and attacked the city of Prague with a most tremendous artillery; but just as he was congratulating himself on the irresistible valour of his troops, the Austrian general, Daun, obliged them to raise the siege and to retreat to Eisnach. The arrival of the Russians gave a new turn to the aspect of the war; and the political manœuvres of count Daun involved his Prussian majesty in many embarrassments, notwithstanding all his splendid victories. A nocturnal attack upon his army at Hochkirchen threw his affairs into a most perilous situation; and, though he contrived to retrieve this misfortune, he was compelled to sacrifice Saxony for the preservation of Silesia. It has been justly observed, that few periods of history afford such room for contemplation as this campaign did:—six sieges were raised almost at the same time;—that of Colberg by the Russians; that of Leipsic by the duke of Deux-Ponts; that of Dresden by count Daun; and those of Cosel, Neiss, and Torgau, by the Austrians.

The king of Prussia's misfortunes now poured in upon him from every quarter. The Russians, of whom he had formerly entertained too mean an opinion, advanced, under the command of count Soltikoff, to Silesia, and defeated his army with prodigious slaughter; succeeding defeats seemed to announce his ruin, and all avenues to a pacification were barred against him. Still, however, he remained firm and undaunted; and

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towards the end of the campaign, he defeated the imperialists in the battle of Torgau; but this victory was attended with no great consequences in his favor, though it cost him ten thousand of his bravest troops. The subsequent reduction of Colberg by the Russians, and of Schweidnitz by the Austrians, seemed to threaten his last hopes with annihilation; but at this critical juncture, his most formidable enemy was removed by death, and the new emperor of Russia recalled his armies. The empress-queen still desired to crush this unfortunate prince, who had incurred her implacable resentment; but, as the German princes disapproved that design, and her generals testified a strong repugnance to execute her orders, she, at length, consented to an armistice; and the subsequent treaty of Hubertsburg again secured to his Prussian majesty the possession of Silesia. About two years after the conclusion of this treaty, the emperor Francis died, in the twenty-first year of his reign. This prince never appeared to take any share in the concerns of Germany, but such as his gratitude to his consort, his dependance upon her for the support of his imperial dignity, and a natural regard for his children, seemed to dictate.

A. D. 1765. Joseph II. who had been crowned king of the Romans in 1764, succeeded his father in the empire; and soon gave some convincing proofs of his activity, by new-modeling the armies, introducing several useful modes of economy, and visiting all the small camps which were formed, during the summer, in Bohemia, Moravia, and Hungary. In one of these excursions into Hungary, the basha of Belgrade invited his imperial majesty to visit that fortress, and assured him that he should be treated with the

same

same honours as the grand-signor. Among many other excellent regulations, the emperor set apart one day in every week for receiving petitions and complaints from all his subjects, without any distinction of birth or fortune; and the officers of his court were expressly forbidden to repulse any, even the meanest object, who came to implore his protection. "It behoves me," said he, "to do justice, and it is my invariable intention to render it to all the world, without respect of persons."

Notwithstanding these exertions on the part of the sovereign, and the blessings of profound tranquillity, Germany was, this year, doomed to suffer most poignant calamities. A series of unfavorable seasons had occasioned a general dearth of corn, which was more or less felt in all the countries of Europe: but in most parts of Germany the scarcity was so great, that vast numbers of people actually perished, and the peasants, in many places, were compelled to unthatch their cottages to supply the want of provender for their cattle. The approach of summer increased instead of alleviating the public distress; for the unusual quantities of snow which lay on the mountains, being suddenly melted, rushed in torrents on the level country; while the overflowing of the great rivers, and the continual rains which fell from the latter end of May till the middle of July, diffused on every side scenes of confusion, terror, and distress. Many parts of Lower Saxony, of the old march of Brandenburg, and of the adjacent countries, were totally ruined by an inundation of the Elbe; Hamburgh was in a most critical situation; and the great suburb lying toward the Elbe was so completely covered with water, A.D. 1771.

water, that only the tops of the trees were discernible.

The princes and states of Germany made every possible exertion to hush the complaints, and alleviate the miseries, of the people; but, as the famine was not confined to the empire, the supplies which they procured were very disproportionable to their benevolent design. A riot happening at Prague in consequence of this unfortunate scarcity, the governor told the people, that if they did not immediately disperse, he would order his soldiers to fire upon them; but this menace was so far from terrifying them, that they replied with perfect coolness, they should look upon the execution of it as a signal favor, a sudden death by shot being much preferable to a lingering one by famine. The empress-queen, being informed of this transaction, burst into a flood of tears, and sent the unhappy rioters immediate relief. About the same time a hundred barrels of flour were discovered in a storehouse at Munich, where they had lain ever since the year 1631, when the famous Gustavus Adolphus ravaged Bavaria. This flour, upon examination, was found to be grown into a hard substance that resembled a kind of stone; but the pressing exigence of the times induced the discoverers to mix it with fresh meal, and to distribute it in bread to the poor, who had for a long time subsisted on the bark of beech and alder, mixed with a small quantity of spice.

During these calamities, his imperial majesty joined with Russia and Prussia in the dismemberment of Poland: but it seems that the court of Vienna was either ashamed of the infamy, or shocked at the injustice of this transaction; for count Kaunitz,

Kaunitz, being interrogated upon the subject by some foreign ministers, denied it in the most solemn terms, and the conduct of the emperor was so equivocal, that none of the European powers could fathom his real intentions. At length, however, all disguise was thrown aside; a manifesto, delivered at Warsaw by the Russian and Prussian ministers, was seconded by the empress-queen; and the three powers openly avowed their intentions. This, however, did not prevent hostilities from being commenced between Austria and Prussia, on account of the succession to the electorate of Bavaria. Upon this occasion the emperor discovered much military skill; but, although prodigious armies were raised on both sides, all the actions proved unimportant, and the dispute was ultimately settled by negociation.

This year was marked by the death of Maria Theresa, empress of Germany, queen of Hungary and Bohemia, and archduchess of Austria; a princess who appears to have inherited all the spirit, firmness, and magnanimity, of her most renowned ancestors, together with a clear understanding, a remarkably happy temper, and a captivating condescension, which insensibly gained the affections of all her subjects. In the course of her life she experienced many vicissitudes of fortune; and at the death of her father, her enemies rushed with such fury upon her territories, that it was actually doubted whether she could retain the possession of any place capable of affording an asylum during her lying-in: but her unfailing courage enabled her to surmount all these difficulties, and to elevate the house of Austria to a degree of power which it had not enjoyed since the reign of Charles the Fifth. Exclusive of her

A. D. 1780.

imprudent

imprudent engagements against Poland, she was entitled to universal respect for the justice of her administration, and in the characters of a wife and parent she was certainly unrivalled. She was blessed with a numerous and amiable progeny, and had the felicity to leave her extensive possessions in the hands of a son who seemed formed by nature to raise the grandeur of his house and the happiness of his subjects to the highest pitch of attainment.

Early in the ensuing year, his imperial majesty promulgated a decree in favor of the liberty of the press, which had been hitherto much circumscribed in the Austrian dominions. By one of the articles he allowed a free circulation, without particular licence, to all literary reviews; and by another, he permitted that all strictures upon the throne itself might be published with full security, provided they did not descend to the character of libels or pasquinades. His remark upon this occasion was equally worthy of his character and dignity.—"If they be founded on justice," said he, "we shall profit by them; if not, we shall disregard them."

This decree was soon followed by others which were admirably calculated to augment the reputation of the sovereign, and render the most important services to the subjects. The Protestants, who had formerly experienced much persecution on account of their religion, were now indulged with the imperial protection; the Jews, on whom innumerable cruelties had often been practised in preceding reigns, were permitted to exercise all kinds of arts or trades, to apply themselves to agriculture, or to pursue their studies in the universities, without any impediment on the score of religion;

religion; and the authority of the court of Rome was prudently curtailed, by an ordinance which prohibited all the religious orders within the imperial dominions, from holding any correspondence, on spiritual or temporal subjects, with their respective chiefs who resided in any foreign country.

In a journey to the Netherlands, the emperor excited the admiration and acquired the warmest affection of the populace. The free audience which he granted to all ranks of persons, the complaisance with which he received their petitions, and the unwearied patience which he exhibited in the investigation of their grievances, were indeed calculated to produce the happiest effects. The inhabitants of Ostend were particularly honoured with his royal favor. He declared their port to be free; ordered their accommodations for shipping to be enlarged at his own expence; and gave such encouragement to foreign settlers in the commercial line, that the town was immediately augmented by many new streets, and crowds of people flocked in from every quarter. The emperor afterwards demanded of the Dutch the free navigation of the Scheldt, but in this he failed.

On his return to Vienna, he reassumed his important regulations, and granted an enlargement of personal liberty to his subjects, which must infallibly transmit his name with unfading glory to all posterity. The peasants of Bohemia, Moravia, and Silesia, had long languished in a state of vassalage, and had been frequently driven, by extreme oppression, to the madness of insurrection, without any possibility of success. Some attempts had been made in the late reign to curb the wanton tyranny of the nobles, and to meliorate the condition of these unfortunate people: but much remained

mained to be done, and the honour of their complete emancipation was reserved for Joseph the Second. Accordingly, that magnanimous prince published an edict for the total abolition of vilainage and slavery in those three countries; and similar measures were taken, soon afterward, for the relief of the peasants in Austrian Poland.

The subsequent suppression of many religious orders, and the promulgation of an imperial rescript, disclaiming all subordination, in secular affairs, to the holy see, induced pope Pius VI. to take a journey to Vienna; but, notwithstanding the very flattering attentions which he received at his arrival, and the uniform politeness of the emperor and all the courtiers, he found it impossible either to accomplish his purpose, or to procure an intermission of those reforms which were now extended to the secular clergy and hierarchy, as well as to the religious orders, or regulars.

A. D. 1786. But the court of Rome was destined to receive a greater shock from another quarter than it had yet sustained from the vigorous exertions of Joseph. The German prelacy, taking advantage of their sovereign's disposition, resolved to seize the present opportunity of calling in the great official powers lodged in his hands, to concur in emancipating them from the Italian yoke in the administration of ecclesiastical affairs; for the interference of the pope in their metropolitan government had been long considered as an intolerable grievance, and an ignominious badge of servitude.

The residence of nuncios, and the ecclesiastical jurisdiction which they assumed, appeared to sum up in themselves the whole amount of this grievance, and were considered as standing monuments of

of the papal oppression. The abolition of these was consequently made the first object of contemplation; and at the earnest solicitation of the elector of Mentz and the archbishop of Saltzburg, his imperial majesty published a memorial, in which he refused to admit any future interference on the part of Rome in ecclesiastical matters, and exhorted his prelates to resist and sternly to oppose all encroachments and usurpations against their rights and government. The publication of this memorial was soon followed by a conference of the ecclesiastical princes held at Ratisbon, where it was unanimously resolved to withdraw themselves entirely from the jurisdiction of the pope; to revive the ancient complaints of the German nation against the oppressions of the holy see; to claim the emperor's protection for the restoration of all their privileges; and to establish new regulations with respect to ecclesiastical discipline. Thus was an end put to the papal domination in Germany, which had been maintained for many ages, and had frequently occasioned much effusion of blood.

Early in the spring of this year, a declaration of war was published at Vienna, against the grand-signor; and about the middle of April the emperor joined the grand army on the Danube, where the attack of Schabatz had been deferred till his arrival. Having altered the dispositions made by the besiegers, and ordered an attack to be given on the opposite side of the town, he had the satisfaction of witnessing its speedy reduction. The garrison, consisting of eight hundred men, surrendered themselves prisoners of war, and the emperor permitted their wives and children to retire with their effects to the nearest Turkish garrison. The triumph of this success, however, was soon damped by the A. D. 1788.

severe repulse which Linchenstein's army received at Dubieza. The prince, having carried on his approaches for some time against that fortress, and made a breach which was deemed practicable, determined to carry the place by assault: but neither the discipline nor the cool determined valour of the German veterans, were capable of withstanding the desperate fury with which they were encountered by the garrison. The fall of the imperial commander, and the immediate wounding of his successor, occasioned a general consternation; and the assailants were routed and pursued with prodigious slaughter.

The first considerable action which took place after this unsuccessful attempt upon Dubieza, was an attack made by the Turks on the prince of Saxe-Cobourg, who occupied with a considerable body of forces the heights of Rohatin. The engagement commenced with extraordinary fury, and was supported with unremitting vigor for three hours, when the arrival of a reinforcement to the prince obliged the enemy to retire. But the Turks, having likewise received a reinforcement, renewed the attack again towards evening, and the shades of night were scarcely sufficient to separate the combatants. On the three following days the battle was renewed with unabated fury; and the cessations were so extremely short, each side being frequently relieved by fresh detachments, that it seemed to be little less than a continued action. The success was various, and the effusion of blood prodigious: but the adverse armies at length parted, without having gained any decisive advantage.

The emperor now prepared to attempt the reduction of Belgrade, in order to appease the discontents which began to be extremely prevalent at Vienna

Vienna and in the army. Accordingly, three bridges were thrown over the Saave, about the beginning of June, and an enormous train of battering cannon and other engines of destruction were brought forward from the neighbouring garrison. But the rapid approach of the grand-vizir, with eighty thousand men, produced an immediate change in his imperial majesty's plan of operation. The bridges over the Saave were hastily demolished, the imperial camp was every-where covered by artillery, and the war became avowedly defensive. It was impossible that two such powerful armies could subsist within so narrow a compass without many sanguinary encounters between their detached parties; but as they produced no important effect, the particulars are scarcely worthy of attention.

In addition to the vexations which had already resulted from his ill success, the emperor had the mortification to witness the rapid destruction of his troops by a dreadful mortality. Putrid fevers and dysenteries of the most malignant nature spread their baneful influence through the imperial armies; several of the generals were obliged to be removed; discontent and complaint became universal; and the soldiers publicly declared that it would be infinitely more honourable to lose fifty thousand men in a battle, than to perish thus miserably in the infection of hospitals. By these means one of the finest armies in the world was reduced, in a single campaign, to less than half the number of its original combatants; the rest being lost by mortality, desertion, and the sword, or rendered incapable of present service by disease.

Joseph endeavoured to repair this dreadful loss by drawing three fresh regiments from Vienna,

and ordering the hereditary countries to raise thirty thousand recruits with the utmost expedition. This, however, was only a prelude to the immense supplies which the insatiate cravings of the war demanded; for it appears, that between eighty and ninety thousand men were drawn out in the course of the year.

Meanwhile the grand-vizir, instead of following the quiescent example of his adversary, adopted measures which spread danger and confusion on every side. Having thrown bridges across the Danube at Cladora, he sent some powerful detachments to the other side, with a view of invading the Bannat of Temeswar, and of reducing his imperial majesty to the dilemma, either of seeing that fine province ravaged, or of quitting his strong camp at Semlin, and exposing his troops to the continual attacks of the Ottomans. Strong detachments were immediately sent from Semlin to counteract the motions of the enemy; while the grand-vizir dispatched several reinforcements to maintain the superiority which his forces had already gained. Thus, by degrees, both armies were drawn from their respective camps, and involved with their commanders in the Bannat. General Wartensleben, who had held the principal command in that province before the arrival of his sovereign, continued for some time on the heights of Mehadia; but he was eventually driven thence by the superior force of the infidels, and obliged to take shelter under the wings of the imperial army.

Prince Lichtenstein being obliged, by illness, to resign the command of the army in Croatia, marshal Laudohn was, with some difficulty, persuaded to succeed him, and the great name of that veteran

veteran officer seemed to reanimate the troops with vigor and confidence. Under his auspices, fortune began to smile on the Austrian arms, which had been long attended with such ill success. Dubieza was reduced after a most obstinate defence; Novi, a still stronger fortress, was obliged to surrender at discretion; and Turkish Gradisca must inevitably have shared a similar fate, had not the violence of the autumnal rains, and a sudden inundation of the Saave, precluded the possibility of carrying on the siege.

During these transactions, the war in the Bannat raged with unabated violence; torrents of blood were shed on both sides; and both armies performed actions of extraordinary valour. Fortune, however, seemed to favor the Ottoman forces, and the utter defeat of general Papilla, in the neighbourhood of Schuppaneck, obliged the emperor to quit his camp at Semlin, and to lead the remainder of his army (now consisting of forty thousand men) to Weiskirchen.

After devoting a few days to necessary repose and refreshment, his imperial majesty removed to the valley of Karansebes, which seemed to offer an advantageous situation. But in less than a week he was obliged to quit this place, and to descend into the open plain, being vigorously pursued by a victorious and insulting enemy. Nothing could be more unfortunate than this retreat: two columns, crossing each other in the dark, fired under a mutual mistake, and fourteen hundred men were sacrificed before the error was discovered. The general confusion was now so great, that the bat-men, throwing the loads from their horses, and the waggoners taking theirs from the carriages, consulted their safety by a precipitate

 flight,

flight, while the plain was completely covered with baggage, which fell into the hands of the enemy.

This affair nearly closed the campaign in the Bannat. The imperialists encamped in tolerable security at Lugos; and the violence of the autumnal rains ruined many of the Turkish horses, insomuch that six thousand of their cavalry were obliged to serve on foot. This circumstance, together with the loss of a prodigious number of men induced the grand-vizir to retire to Belgrade; and the emperor soon afterward returned to Vienna.

Notwithstanding the bad success of this campaign, the unexampled waste of treasure, and the ruin of his own constitution, Joseph resolved to prosecute the war with unremitting vigor, until his tarnished glory should be restored to its pristine lustre. Accordingly, having obtained some subsidies, and filled up the ranks of his armies, he prevailed on the old field-marshal Haddick to supply his place in the chief command, while the prince de Ligne should enjoy the second post of honour in the grand army; the prince of Saxe Cobourg should act, in concert with the Russians, on the side of Moldavia; and marshal Laudohn should command in Croatia.

A. D. 1789. Early in the ensuing spring, both armies took the field; but the affairs of the Turks were now involved in complete confusion, all the arrangements of the late grand-vizir were subverted, the troops had lost their accustomed valour, and fortune consequently forsook the Ottoman standard. Upon the borders of Transylvania, the war commenced with mutual spirit and animosity, but nothing of importance was achieved by the enemy. Turkish Gradisca, which had formerly

formerly made so brave a resistance, was strangely abandoned on the first attack; the prince of Saxe-Cobourg gained a decisive victory over thirty thousand infidels who were encamped, under the command of a serasquier, in Wallachia; the grand-vizir was totally defeated at Martinesti by the inferior forces of Saxe-Cobourg and general Suwarrow; and the fortress of Belgrade was eventually reduced by the irresistible arms of marshal Laudohn.

Notwithstanding the extraordinary success of this and the succeeding campaign, a spirit of discontent predominated in the Austrian dominions; and even the empress consented that Joseph should conclude a separate treaty with the Turks. An alliance was also concluded between the Porte and the king of Prussia, by which it was stipulated, that in case an equitable peace should not be granted in a given time, his Prussian majesty should use his utmost endeavours for extorting it by force of arms. The emperor, however, persisted in his resolution, and vigorous preparations were made, on both sides, for renewing the war.

Meanwhile the Hungarians, who had long been in a state of insurrection, sent a very haughty memorial to Vienna, demanding the restoration of all their ancient privileges, the return of their crown and other regalia which had been removed from Presburg, and the liberty of exchanging the German for their old native dress. Upon these conditions they promised to defend the kingdom to the last drop of their blood, and to supply the emperor's armies with every necessary their country would afford; but while their grievances remained without redress they declared they must

regard

regard the imperial authority as unjust and despotic. The emperor, softened by public calamities and worn out with bodily disease, complied with most of these requisitions, and solemnly declared, that if he should be alive in the ensuing month of May, he would visit the capital of Hungary for the purpose of being crowned.

A. D. 1790. Whilst the Hungarians were making public rejoicings for the restoration of their crown, the emperor was constantly attended by his two favorite generals, the marshals Lacy and Laudohn, and very frequently, notwithstanding his great age, by marshal Haddick. His illness had been long and painful; but he bore all his sufferings with remarkable patience, and met the approaches of death with Christian fortitude and resignation. He had even the magnanimity to order a present of ten thousand florins to the physician who acquainted him, not only with the impossibility of his recovery, but that his dissolution was to be apprehended hourly, and so suddenly as to prevent all notice of the fatal stroke. After this melancholy sentence, he lingered for several days, and expired on the 20th of February, in the twenty-fifth year of his reign.

Joseph II. was conspicuously noted for benevolence, condescension, and temperance. Patient of fatigue, and possessed of an ardent mind, he applied himself with unremitting diligence to the suppression of intolerance and superstition, and the promotion of industry, throughout his dominions. He has been violently accused of encroaching on the liberties of his Flemish subjects, and of exhibiting a considerable degree of rapacity in his attempts on Bavaria; but these faults may surely

surely be overlooked among the truly glorious actions which contributed to the aggrandisement of his own name, and the permanent felicity of his people.

Peter Leopold, grand-duke of Tuscany, succeeded his brother on the imperial throne; and, notwithstanding the very embarrassed state of public affairs, he soon acquired popularity by his moderation and conciliatory measures. Discontents in Hungary, an insurrection in the Netherlands, and the formation of a sextuple alliance against the confederation between Austria and Russia, marked the commencement of his reign, and exposed him to most serious difficulties; but all these were gradually obviated by his prudent conduct, and a treaty was eventually concluded between the Porte and Vienna, which happily terminated an expensive, protracted, and destructive war.

A short time before the conclusion of this treaty, marshal Laudohn died, in the seventy-fifth year of his age; and his death was universally lamented, not only on account of his military talents, but also for his amiable virtues, which shone forth equally in his intercourses with society and his domestic retirement. This justly celebrated officer was born in Livonia, but his father was a Scotchman descended from the ancient family of Loudon. He embraced the profession of arms at a very early period of life, and actually fought as a private soldier during the war of 1733. At the conclusion of peace, finding himself without provision, he walked from Heidelberg in the Palatinate to the banks of the Black Sea, and entered into the service of the Russians. In 1739 he returned to Germany, and after a fruitless applica-

tion

tion to the king of Prussia, he procured an ensign's commission in the Austrian army. Unaided by friends or connections of any kind, his rise was, at first, very slow; but the eminent services which he rendered to Maria Theresa, between the years 1757 and 1763, were remunerated with honours and affluence. The quality by which he was particularly characterised as a general was, the rapidity and decision of his movements. The great king of Prussia has been heard to observe, hat he sometimes admired the position of other generals, but always dreaded the battles of Laudohn: and it was commonly said in Germany, that although the progress of the Austrian armies was often marked by unprofitable cruelties and devastation, field-marshal Laudohn made war like a Christian and a gentleman.

A.D. 1791. The French revolution now attracted the attention of all the European powers; and a conference was held at Pilnitz between the emperor, the king of Prussia, and the elector of Saxony. Upon this occasion, however, Leopold acted with his accustomed moderation; and, instead of advising an immediate attack upon France, he merely wished to oppose an effectual security against the tremendous hurricane which threatened Europe. He was afterwards persuaded to commence hostilities, but his designs were soon terminated by a pleuritic fever, which brought him to the grave in the second year of his reign. This prince had governed Tuscany for nearly twenty-five years, with equal prudence and reputation; having directed his principal exertions to the amelioration of the laws, and the general improvement of his people. While only a distant spectator of the great scenes passing in the empire,

pire, he attentively studied the affairs of Europe; and upon his elevation to the imperial throne, he retained all the sentiments of his former life. In the course of his short reign he remedied many calamities which had resulted from his brother's precipitation; conducted his own affairs to a prosperous issue; and entered upon a career which seemed to promise the most solid advantages to Europe, when relentless death arrested his progress, and laid his expanding honours in the dust.

Francis succeeded his father in the kingdoms of Hungary and Bohemia, and, after a short time, he was raised to the imperial throne. At the instigation of the king of Prussia, he resolved to contribute his utmost endeavours to the restoration of monarchy in France; and the haughty language in which he demanded that satisfaction should be given to the German proprietors of Alsace, that Avignon should be restored to the pope, and that the internal government of France should be invested with such efficiency as might obviate the apprehensions of the other powers, produced a declaration of war on the part of the national assembly.

A. D. 1792.

On the 3d of July, the duke of Brunswic arrived, with the first division of an army of Prussians, at Coblentz, on the right bank of the Rhine; and on the 27th of the same month he published a manifesto, which was intended to serve the cause of royalty, but which unhappily produced a very opposite effect. The indignation which it excited in France induced upwards of ten thousand young men to enrol their names, without bounty, for the defence of their country; and the liberal rewards which were offered

offered to all who should resort to the standard of liberty, occasioned a great desertion among the Austrian soldiers.

On the twentieth of September, the Austrians and Prussians made an attack upon the advanced guard of Kellerman, near Dampierre; but after a vigorous cannonade on both sides, they were compelled to retire. Sickness and want of provisions now began to pervade the combined armies; the soldiers, from eating large quantities of unripe grapes, had brought on a dysentery; the horses were also seized with distempers, owing to the new wheat on which they had been fed; while the extreme badness of the weather increased these calamities, and rendered the roads almost impassable.

In the mean time, Custine took possession of Spires, where he found abundance of arms and ammunition; Worms, Mayence, and Frankfort, were, soon after, compelled to surrender; and the victorious general appeared eager to proceed to Coblentz, the noted seat of counter-revolutionists: but the Austrians and Prussians at length indicated a renewal of hostilities, by garrisoning that town, and forming an encampment in the adjacent country.

On the fourth of November, general Dumouriez entered the Austrian Netherlands, with an army of forty thousand men, and a prodigious train of artillery. Next morning he reconnoitred the position of the Austrian army, which consisted of about twenty thousand men, under the command of the duke of Saxe-Teschen. Their right wing extended to the village of Jemappe, and their left towards Mount Palisel; and they were defended by three tiers of redoubts, furnished with a hundred pieces of cannon.

Several

Several skirmishes took place between the hostile armies before they came to a general engagement; but at length a battle was fought at Jemappe, which decided the fate of the Netherlands. The assault was dreadful, and the obstinacy of the conflict truly memorable. All the flanks and lines of the imperialists were attacked at once; all the divisions of the French were in action, and almost every individual fought personally. The cannonade began at seven o'clock in the morning; at noon the French infantry formed in columns to decide the affair with fixed bayonets; and at two o'clock the Austrians were compelled to retreat with precipitation to Mons.

In this action, which, according to the account of Dumouriez, was the most terrible in the memory of man, the imperialists are said to have lost four thousand men in killed and wounded, and nearly the same number in missing and disbanded: but it is sufficiently obvious that the republicans were greatly indebted to their superiority of numbers, which, after the junction of Dumouriez with general d'Harville, exceeded the enemy in the proportion of three to one.

The French general lost no time in summoning Mons to surrender; and, as the magistracy were inclined to favor the besiegers, the Austrians thought proper to retire to Brussels, whither Dumouriez prepared to follow with all possible expedition.

Meanwhile the operations in West Flanders were carried on with equal spirit and effect. General Labourdonnaye, having forced the Austrians from several important posts, and opened the navigation of the river Lys, marched to take possession of Tournay, which had been recently eva-

cuated; Menin and Ypres were soon added to his conquests; and on the twelfth of November he took possession of Ghent, without any difficulty. The Austrians under La Tour retired safely to Antwerp; but part of their baggage, which had been embarked on the Scheldt, fell into the hands of the enemy.

During these transactions, Dumouriez appeared before Brussels, and his advanced guard made a successful attack on the prince of Wirtemburg, who, with an army of eight thousand men, occupied the heights of Anderlicht. On the following day, the gates of Brussels were opened to the French commander. Charleroi, Antwerp, Mechlin, Louvain, Ostend, Namur, and all the Austrian Netherlands except Luxembourg, successively followed the example of the capital; while the most numerous and best appointed armies of Europe were retreating in every direction from the enthusiastic forces of the victorious republic.

A. D. 1793. Early in the ensuing spring, general Miranda invested Maestricht with an army of twenty thousand men, and summoned the town to surrender, in a proclamation replete with sanguinary menace. But the prince of Saxe-Cobourg, having defeated the republicans at Aix-la-Chapelle with prodigious slaughter, obliged him to raise the siege. About the same time, prince Frederic of Brunswic took some batteries at Zwaone, killed thirteen hundred of the French at Bruges, and took seven hundred prisoners.

Alarmed at these defeats, Dumouriez returned into the Netherlands on the fifteenth of March, and compelled the Austrian advanced posts to retire from Tirlemont. On the eighteenth, a general engagement took place at Neerwinden, the

French

French army being covered on the right by Landen, and on the left by Dermael. This action continued with equal obstinacy on both sides from seven o'clock in the morning till five in the afternoon, when the French were defeated with the loss of four thousand men and several pieces of cannon. The French are said to have displayed considerable courage and address upon this occasion, but they were overpowered by the superior numbers and more regular discipline of their enemies. Shortly after this event, Dumouriez incurred the displeasure of the convention, and four commissioners were actually empowered to arrest him; but on his discovering their intentions, he caused them to be immediately conveyed to Clairfait's head-quarters at Tournay, as hostages for the safety of the royal family. He then ventured to sound his army respecting the restoration of monarchy in the person of the prince; but the mere proposal excited such general indignation, that he was instantly compelled to flee to the allies for protection, after narrowly escaping a tremendous discharge of musketry, which his exasperated troops poured upon him and his faithful attendants.

The latter end of June was only distinguished by some petty skirmishes between the two grand armies; but in the ensuing month, the Austrians gained some advantages of greater importance. The garrison of Condé, after sustaining a blockade of three months, was obliged to capitulate to the prince of Wirtemberg; and Valenciennes surrendered to his royal highness the duke of York, who took possession of it in the name of the emperor. About the same time Mentz was reduced, after a most tedious siege, by the king of Prussia.

A. D. 1794. The campaign of this year proved extremely unfortunate to the confederates. In Flanders, general Jourdan gained the battle of Fleurus; Charleroi, Bruges, Ypres, and Courtray, surrendered to the French; Ostend was evacuated; the defeat of general Clairfait near Mons obliged that town to capitulate; and the prince of Cobourg was compelled to abandon the whole of the Netherlands; while Brussels, Antwerp, Landrecy, Quesnoi, Valenciennes, and Condé, were successively retaken; and the victorious republicans, pursuing their success, took Aix-la-Chapelle, defeated Clairfait in the vicinity of Juliers, and made themselves masters of Bonn, Cologne, Maestricht, and Nimeguen. It must, however, be acknowledged, that some of these victories were dearly purchased; and it is but justice to assert, that the allies gave many brilliant proofs, even in this unlucky campaign, of their extraordinary valour, skill, and resolution. The duke of York, lord Moira, the hereditary prince of Orange, and many other illustrious characters, distinguished themselves in a very particular manner; but the prodigious numbers and unparalleled enthusiasm of the French troops were altogether irresistible; the coalesced armies were likewise unfortunately reduced by hardships and disease; and, in many cases, the easy reduction of towns or fortresses resulted from the treachery of the inhabitants.

A. D. 1795. Elated by the subsequent secession of Prussia and Spain from the grand alliance, and the inactivity of the German princes, the republicans avowed their intention of completing the humiliation of their enemies. They opened the campaign with the siege of Luxemburg,

burg, and the reduction of that important place served to enflame their presumption; but after obtaining some small advantages over the Austrian armies, they were doomed to experience an unexpected reverse of fortune. Their projects on the right bank of the Rhine were totally frustrated; Jourdan was compelled to raise the siege of Mentz, and to retire with precipitation to Dusseldorf; Manheim was retaken after an obstinate resistance; and the victorious Clairfait, having effected a junction with Wurmser, recovered the Palatinate, and most of the countries between the Rhine and the Moselle.

These successes induced the Austrians to penetrate as far as Luxemburg, and a large division of their troops was immediately provided with all the requisites for such an attempt: but the desperate resistance of the French retarded the execution of this project, and, after a prodigious effusion of blood, the severity of the winter compelled both parties to suspend hostilities.

The ill success of the last campaign was wholly attributed, by the French directory, to the unskilful management of their generals. But, as the Austrians were prepared to pass the Rhine in great force, and the attachment of the Belgians began to waver, it was resolved to divert the emperor's attention from the Netherlands, to his Italian dominions, whence he drew still greater supplies. This undertaking was certainly arduous, and many obstacles presented themselves which appeared almost insuperable; but these were counterbalanced by the enthusiastic ardor of those French troops who were impatient to indemnify themselves for the hardships they had sustained upon a rocky and steril coast, to which they had long been confined by want of reinforcements.

 Upon

A. D. 1796. Upon these considerations the republic determined to attempt the reduction of Italy; and the rapid victories of their troops under general Bonaparte exceeded their most sanguine expectations. The battles of Millesimo, Dego, and Mondovi, compelled his Sardinian majesty to accept of peace, on the hard conditions of ceding Savoy and Nice to the invaders; general Beaulieu, after an obstinate conflict at Lodi, was forced to retire, with the shattered remains of his army, to Mantua; and the conquerors, soon afterward, took possession of the whole of Lombardy.

The armistice which had been concluded on the Rhine, was declared to be at an end on the 31st of May; when the army of the Sambre and Meuse, under general Jourdan, gained some great advantages over the Austrians, and penetrated into the interior of the empire. Meanwhile another army, under general Moreau, having crossed the Rhine at Strasburg, marched through Bavaria, in order to join the conquerors. This attempt, however, was rendered abortive, and both armies experienced a reverse of fortune which obliged them to recross the Rhine. The archduke Charles, commander of the Austrian forces, followed Moreau with great expedition, and retook the fort of Kehl, after a most obstinate resistance on the part of the enemy.

Meanwhile the emperor assembled a new army, to restore the affairs of Italy, and gave the command of it to general Wurmser, one of the ablest officers in the Austrian service. This force, on its first arrival, was so extremely successful, that the French were repulsed, defeated, and compelled to raise the siege of Mantua. But Bonaparte soon returned to the charge; and, after a series of obstinate engagements, Wurmser was obliged to take refuge

refuge behind the walls of Mantua, while a detachment of the republicans made an irruption into the Tyrol, and gained possession of the passes leading to Vienna. The Austrians, at the same time, made a gallant effort, under general Alvinzy, to rescue Wurmser and his besieged army; but the battles of Arcola and Rivoli unfortunately frustrated their design, and Mantua was obliged to surrender on capitulation.

While the victorious Bonaparte was compelling the pope, the king of Naples, and other princes, to conclude such treaties as he thought proper to dictate, the imperial court was busily occupied in the means of disputing once more the empire of Italy. At length it was determined to collect a most formidable army, from the numerous divisions and garrisons in the Austrian service; and to give the command to the archduke Charles, whose conduct and successes during the last campaign had rendered him extremely popular.

The Austrians had been so effectually discouraged by their defeat at Rivoli, that they had ever since avoided an engagement, and remained cautiously posted on the northern side of the Piava; while the enemy lay on the opposite bank, to observe their motions, and prevent them from crossing the river.

Upon the first arrival of the archduke, the French resolved to march against him, and accordingly advanced to the Piava in three divisions. The first, commanded by Massena, crossed over near Feltri, and obliged the imperialists to retire to Belluno; the second, under Serrurier, passed the river at Asola, after repulsing a detachment who had attempted to check his progress; and the third, commanded by general Guiaux, A. D. 1797.

Guiaux, advanced to Sacali, where he overtook the rear-guard of a division of the Austrians, and took a considerable number of prisoners.

The French divisions now directed their march toward the Tagliomento; but the Austrians entrenched themselves on the opposite side, and prepared to make a vigorous resistance; being perfectly aware that the enemy, by passing this river, would be able to over-run a large extent of country. Bonaparte and the archduke Charles commanded on this occasion, and both generals drew up their troops with extraordinary skill; but after a long and sanguinary conflict, the Austrians were overpowered, and compelled to retreat with prodigious loss. The archduke, however, retained his accustomed intrepidity, and resolved to hazard another combat the next morning; but the discouragement of his troops, and an unexpected assault on the part of the French, compelled him to abandon his design, and consult his safety by a precipitate flight.

By the passages of the Piava and Tagliomento, the whole country to the north of these rivers lay open to the French; while the imperialists retired in every direction, with a visibly diminished resistance. Palmanova was hastily evacuated; Gradisca and Goritz were obliged to surrender, notwithstanding the utmost exertions of their garrisons; and Trieste, the only sea-port belonging to his imperial majesty on the Adriatic, soon fell into the hands of the conquerors. Meanwhile an Austrian army was utterly defeated by Massena, at Tarvis, with the loss of a prodigious number of men, thirty pieces of cannon, and four hundred baggage-waggons.

Towards the end of March, the central division

of the republicans, having entered Carinthia, chased the archduke from his head-quarters at Clagenfurth, and advanced across the Drave to Frisach. An obstinate conflict took place at the defiles leading to Neumark; but the imperialists were eventually forced to retire, with the loss of a great number of slain, and about six hundred prisoners. The archduke, having collected his flying troops, attempted to make a vigorous stand at Hundsmark, but he was again defeated with great slaughter.

In the mean time, the arms of Joubert were attended with equal success in the Tyrol. The imperialists had posted themselves in the defiles leading to Inspruck, and, as they consisted entirely of veteran troops detached from the Rhine, it was hoped they would have been able to guard the accesses of this province; but the discharge of the French artillery was so tremendous, that they were soon routed, with the loss of six hundred prisoners and the whole of their baggage. About the same time Bernadotte completed the reduction of the province of Carniola, and opened an entrance on that side into Stiria.

The court of Vienna now perceived that all expectations of an effectual opposition to the French were totally unfounded. The fifth army which Austria had raised against them was nearly destroyed; the recruits that were raising could not supply the place of veterans who had not themselves been able to resist the enemy; and the archduke, on whom implicit confidence was reposed, had proved as unfortunate in command as his predecessors. The only apparent resource was to acquiesce in the terms of pacification offered by France.

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In this melancholy posture of affairs, the Austrian nobility expressed a zealous determination to share the fortune of their sovereign, and to defend his capital to the last extremity. Accordingly, the remains of a body of young gentlemen who had served as volunteers under Alvinzi, were again completed; the Hungarian nobles were earnestly exhorted to repair with their vassals to Vienna; a formidable mass of stout and resolute men was to be raised in all the hereditary states; and the regular troops were ordered to assemble from all quarters.

But these preparations were not calculated to soothe the alarms of the populace. Numbers of the opulent, and even of the higher ranks, withdrew themselves and their effects, under the apprehension of a siege; the emperor himself seemed inclined to retire from the impending danger; and the stoppage of payment at the bank completed the fears and dissatisfaction of all the citizens.

During these transactions, Bonaparte was collecting and concentrating his forces in order to proceed to Vienna, where he threatened to plant the standard of France, if the emperor still refused to terminate the war. Previously to his renewing hostilities, however, he wrote a letter to the archduke Charles, which excited the universal attention of Europe, and was admirably calculated to conciliate the esteem of a people to whom he presented the olive of peace: but on the archduke's expressing his inability to conclude a treaty without special orders, the French troops were immediately put in motion, and their general declared that he would soon carry all his designs into execution.

The

The news of this determination, and the rapid approach of a victorious enemy, induced his imperial majesty to listen to terms of accommodation. Accordingly, generals Murveldt and Bellegarde were deputed to confer with Bonaparte on the subject of an armistice; and, after a few days, preliminaries of peace were signed by both parties.

Meanwhile the French armies on the Rhine had obtained some considerable advantages. On the 19th of April, general Moreau effected a passage across the river, and took possession of fort Kehl, notwithstanding the obstinate resistance of the Austrians who occupied that important place: the loss on both sides was very great; five French generals were wounded, and numbers of their soldiers killed; but the Austrians lost many more men in the engagement, besides three thousand who were taken prisoners. About the same time, a furious battle was fought on the Lower Rhine, between generals Hoche and Kray, which terminated in the utter defeat of the imperialists, and the loss of all their artillery. The enemy, elated with this success, pursued the retiring Austrians to the defiles of the Dilla, and were advancing by rapid marches to Frankfort, when intelligence arrived of the preliminaries being signed by Bonaparte and the emperor.

By the treaty of peace signed at Campo-Formio, on the 17th of October, the emperor ceded to the French republic the whole of the Austrian Netherlands, and consented to their retaining the Venetian islands of Corfu, Zante, Cephalonia, and all their other isles in the Adriatic, together with their settlements in Albania. He also acknowledged the Cisalpine republic as an independent state; ceding to it the sovereignty of the

the countries in Lombardy, which had formerly belonged to Austria, and consenting that it should possess Bergamo, Brescia, and other territories late in the dependence of Venice, together with the duchies of Mantua and Modena, the principalities of Caveara and Massa, and the cities of Romagna, Ferrara, and Bologna, lately belonging to the pope. The cessions on the part of France were Istria, Dalmatia, the city of Venice with a large portion of the dominions of that republic, and all the Venetian islands in the Adriatic lying to the north-west of the Gulf of Lodrino.

These were the principal articles of the treaty of Campo-Formio; but there were some other articles, deemed of an unostensible nature, by which the emperor consented that the Rhine should be the boundary between France and Germany; and promised to use his mediation for procuring a similar consent on the part of the states and princes of the empire. He also gave his formal assent to the dispositions which had been made of various imperial fiefs in Italy, in favor of the Cisalpine and Ligurian republics; and promised to concur with France in soliciting the diet of the empire to resign its feudal sovereignty over those districts.

This treaty, however, proved no more than an armed truce, during which the opposite parties were less animated by the desire of a permanent peace, than by the wish of being in a condition to renew the war. The preliminaries of Leoben had been signed at a moment pregnant with dangers to the French commander, as well as with destruction to the house of Austria. In proportion, therefore, as that perilous crisis was removed, the French and Austrian governments resumed their habitual passions and views. The French directory, by

by many overt-acts of injustice and oppression, manifested a strong disposition to extend their conquests; the negociations at Rastadt gradually assumed the appearance of a diplomatical war, in which the respective plenipotentiaries acted as spies upon each other; and the admission of general Suwarrow with a Russian army into Germany was considered as a declaration of war against the French republic.

The armies of both parties were at this time truly formidable. General Massena, with forty-five thousand men, occupied Switzerland, and the left bank of the Rhine, almost from its source to the western extremity of the Lake of Constance; Jourdan was stationed, with sixty-five thousand, between Basle and Dusseldorf; and the corps on the right bank of the Rhine, amounting to twenty thousand men, was called "the army of observation." The imperialists, on the other hand, had more than sixty thousand men, under command of the archduke Charles, on the Lech; twenty thousand were assembled in the Palatinate under general Stzarray; an equal number, commanded by general Hotze, occupied the Voralberg and the country of the Grisons; nearly twenty-five thousand, under general Bellegarde, were on the frontiers of the last-mentioned country and the Tyrol; and the army of Italy was computed to consist of sixty thousand effective men.

A. D. 1799.

If numbers could have ensured success, his imperial majesty might now have triumphed in the anticipation of a most brilliant victory; for he had, at this juncture, one hundred and eighty thousand men, ninety thousand of whom were in a situation for acting against Jourdan and Massena. But, as the Austrians were

were resolved to let the odium of recommencing hostilities fall upon the republicans, their first operations could only be defensive and dependent on those of the enemy. It was the business of the archduke to confine himself, in the first instance, to the defence of the passage of the Lech; and generals Hotze and Bellegarde were fully employed in providing for the security of their posts in Swabia, Tyrol, and the country of the Grisons, together with those in the Valteline and in Italy.

On the 2d of March, general Bernadotte presented himself before the fortress of Philipsburg; and, in an insolent letter to the commandant, summoned the place to surrender, asserting that the garrison was ready to revolt, and denouncing vengeance in case of resistance. But his menaces were treated with merited contempt; and, after making some vigorous exertions, he was compelled to raise the siege. Meanwhile the French army, having penetrated into the Palatinate and Swabia, levied heavy contributions, and continued their march without any impediment; as the Austrians were at a great distance, and the duke of Wirtemberg, the only prince who could have thrown any obstacles in their way, observed a strict neutrality.

Massena having made himself master of the narrow pass the Lucien-steig, by throwing a bridge across the Rhine at Asmooz, general Auffenburg had no other resource than to concentrate his forces for the defence of Chur. Accordingly, after an obstinate contest, he took possession of the heights near Chur, and prepared to make a gallant resistance against the further encroachments of the enemy: but, being overpowered by numbers, he was eventually compelled to surrender. General Hotze, in the mean time, made a vigorous

effort

effort to penetrate into the valley of the Rhine; but he was repulsed, and obliged to return to Field-kirk with the loss of a considerable number of men and several pieces of cannon.

A few days after these successes, Lecourbe, with a strong detachment of French troops, took possession of almost all the valley of the upper and lower Engadine; but on his attacking an Austrian post at St. Martinsbruck he was defeated, by general Alciani, with considerable loss. This check counterbalanced the success of Desolles in the Valteline; and delayed, for some time, the invasion of the Tyrol.

Meanwhile the archduke, being apprised of the enemy's motions, ordered the whole of his army to prepare to cross the Lech, and to proceed with all possible expedition to Ulm, which he wished to secure, as a strong point of support on the Danube. His orders were immediately reduced to execution, and in less than a week he fixed his head-quarters at Mammingen; while his vanguard, commanded by general Nawendorf, pushed on towards Ravensburg, and the corps which had occupied Ulm was sending detachments along both sides of the Danube. The line possessed by the Austrians between Ulm and Bregentz had already frustrated Jourdan's plan of gaining the flank of the Tyrol by mere marches; the main body of the imperial army was ready to support general Hotze; and both parties prepared for a battle, which had now become unavoidable.

Hitherto no resistance had been made in Swabia; and the French continued to aver, notwithstanding their numerous acts of injustice, that they had no other view than to take positions of safety. But, at length, the directory threw off the mask, and

caused war to be formally declared, by the legislative body, against his imperial majesty and the grand-duke of Tuscany. Hereupon Jourdan determined to come to action on the 21st of March: but the archduke resolved to be beforehand with him, and immediately divided his army into three columns; one of which, commanded by the prince of Furstemberg, was to march towards Mengen, in order to dislodge the enemy from that place; while a second division, under general Wallis, directed their march to the river Ostrach; and the archduke, with the centre, advanced on the same point along the causeway of Sulgau. The advanced posts of the enemy made a most desperate resistance, but were eventually overthrown by the imperialists: the bridge of Ostrach was also forced after an obstinate conflict, and the republicans were compelled to retire with the loss of five thousand men. A second engagement took place near Aach, and was supported on both sides with astonishing firmness and intrepidity: but victory ultimately declared in favor of the Austrians; and Jourdan, after hastily repassing the Rhine, proceeded to Paris, *for the re-establishment of his health*. Here, however, he met with the reception that is usually given by popular governments to unsuccessful generals; and was stripped of the command of the army. About the same time the inhabitants of the Tyrol took up arms against their French invaders; and, after a most obstinate conflict, compelled them to evacuate that country.

Massena was now appointed to succeed Jourdan in the command of all the French forces from the frontiers of the Tyrol and Italy to the Palatinate. Accordingly, on the 12th of April, he fixed his head-quarters at Basle, as the central point of his army;

army; which consisted of about 100,000 men, and extended from Manheim to the source of the Adige. The war might now be said to assume a more decided character; and all the hopes which the French directory and some of the German princes had founded on the congress of Rastadt, were totally overthrown. The brilliant successes of the archduke re-animated the court of Vienna; and the imperial commissioner announced officially to the congress, that he had orders to revoke all the concessions he had made, and to declare that matters should thenceforth be considered in the same state as they were previously to the opening of the congress. This declaration, and the subsequent departure of the deputies of the empire, terminated he conferences at Rastadt.

In this place it appears necessary to take a retrospective view of some particular events, which may be considered as a kind of episodes in the history of that ridiculous council—the sport of France, and the disgrace of Germany.

On the 13th of April, 1796, the populace of Vienna had voluntarily taken up arms to defend their city, and the palace of their sovereign, against the republican forces, who were supposed to be approaching by rapid marches toward the capital. This mark of loyalty was immediately recorded among the public acts of government, and the emperor commanded that its anniversaries should be celebrated with civil and religious ceremonies. On the evening of that day, 1798, the republican flag was displayed, for the first time, on the balcony of the French ambassador's hotel. This gross insult excited general indignation, and the populace demanded with loud and repeated cries that the flag should be taken down. To murmurings suc-

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ceeded violence; and the exasperated multitude, after tearing the obnoxious colours to atoms, burst open the gates of the hotel, threatening to sacrifice the ambassador and all his suite to their vengeance. The furniture on the ground-floor was instantly demolished, and two of Bernadotte's carriages were dragged to the court of the palace, and broken to pieces. But whilst they were thus employed, a detachment of military occupied the street in which the ambassador's house was situated, and prevented their return. A polite apology was offered on the part of the court, for this unfortunate disturbance; but the haughty demands of the ambassador could not be complied with, and he therefore took the earliest opportunity of quitting Vienna.

This occurrence was soon followed by another more tragical and calamitous. At the termination of the conferences at Rastadt, the French plenipotentiaries expressed an intention of setting out in three days for Paris. But, on applying for a safe conduct, they were ordered to quit the territory of Gernbach and the imperial army in the space of twenty-four hours. At the same moment, four hundred hussars entered Rastadt, and took possession of the gates, with an order to suffer no person to enter in, or go out. About nine o'clock in the evening the French ministers were in their carriages; and, after some altercation, they obtained permission to leave the town; but they had scarcely proceeded five hundred paces from the gate, when a troop of hussars rushed out from a wood, and surrounded the first carriage, in which was Jean Debrie with his wife and children. Mistaking these ruffians for a patrole, Debrie held his passport out at the window, mentioning his name and quality; but he was immediately dragged out,

out, and wounded in so terrible a manner by the sabres of his assailants, that he was left for dead, though he afterwards contrived to crawl into an adjacent ditch. The second carriage was then stopped, and Debrie's secretary and valet-de-chambre were forced to alight; but on their exclaiming that they were domestics, they escaped without any other injury than a few blows. Bonnier was dragged from the third carriage by one of the most violent hussars, who cut off his hand, head, and arms. Rosensteil, the secretary of legation, perceiving what was passing, jumped out of his carriage and made his escape; but Roberjot was inhumanly murdered while his distracted wife held him strongly locked in her arms. The assassins then retired, and the carriages with the ladies and servants returned to Rastadt, whither Rosensteil also came about eleven o'clock the same night, and Jean Debrie the next morning.

The Russian ministers immediately wrote to colonel Barbaczy, commander of the Austrian advanced posts, demanding a proper escort for what remained of the French legation; and the injured parties quitted Rastadt on the following day, in company with the Ligurian minister, who had followed them on the former occasion, but had fortunately escaped before the hussars came up to his carriage.

Various conjectures were formed respecting this dark transaction, and two imperial officers were arrested, in order to undergo a trial by a court-martial; but as it was afterward declared that the assassins were French emigrants, under the assumed appearance of hussars, this trial did not take place.

The French directory peremptorily charged the court

court of Vienna with the murder, and the councils adopted a resolution, "that this act should be denounced, in the name of the republic, to the governments of every country, as commanded by the imperial cabinet, and executed by its troops; that funeral solemnities should be performed throughout France, in honour of the murdered deputies; that in all places of municipal administration, in schools, tribunals, and public establishments, an inscription should be set up, stating that the Austrian government had caused this inhuman murder to be committed by its soldiers; that a banner should be sent to every army by sea and land, with an inscription provocative of vengeance against the Austrians; and that indemnities should be given to the widows and children of the deceased ministers." His imperial majesty, however, expressed such abhorrence of the atrocious deed, and made such vigorous exertions for discovering its authors or accomplices, that the French nation gradually cooled in their resentment, and began to doubt the reality of what had been so positively charged upon the cabinet of Vienna.

A. D. 1799. But to resume the thread of our history.—After victory had enabled the Austrians to act offensively in Germany and Italy, they found themselves obliged to regulate every operation in such a manner as to direct the whole to the attainment of one common object. A plan was concerted between generals Hotze and Bellegarde, for an attack on the territories of the Grisons; and, after some vigorous repulses, they effected their design of expelling the French troops from that country. Massena, soon afterward, evacuated the eastern part of Italy; and the imperialists having gained possession of St. Gothard, were

were enabled to complete the communication between their two grand armies. Their operations now became better combined, and their activity acquired a more decided superiority than at any other period of the campaign. They kept the French in awe on the Mayne, the Necker, and the Kintzing; seized all the passages between Switzerland and Italy; besieged the citadel of Turin; and blockaded, at the same time, the fortresses of Tortona, Mantua, and Alexandria.

The month of July, and the beginning of August, passed over without any important enterprise; but during that time great preparations were made and measures taken for future operations. The French having pressed the levy of their conscripts, formed two new armies; one of which was destined to act on the Rhine, and invade Franconia; while the other was to cover France on the side of Dauphiny, to act offensively in Piedmont, and to co-operate with the army which occupied the Genoese.

The Austrian forces were now no longer adequate to retain their important acquisitions, or to pursue the career of beginning conquest. Recourse was therefore had to the courts of London and Petersburgh; and the emperor, in an aulic decree, called on the states of the empire to pay the Roman months, and to furnish the quintuple contingents, agreeably to the last conclusions of the diet of Ratisbon. At the same time, the elector of Bavaria and the duke of Wirtemberg were persuaded to enter into the coalition, and to raise a considerable body of troops, on condition of their being subsidized by Great Britain.

On the fourteenth of August, general Massena resolved to make an attack on the whole Austrian line,

line, and his project was attended with such success, that the imperialists were soon driven from the cantons of Schwitz and Uri; and the archduke Charles was obliged to quit Switzerland, in order to provide for the safety of that part of his army which was stationed on the right bank of the Rhine.

Upon the departure of prince Charles, the allies proposed to recover the small cantons, and to turn the position so long held by Massena on the Albis, and on the lakes of Zug and Lucerne. But Massena gained intelligence of this project, and resolved to commence hostilities before it could be reduced to execution. Accordingly he ordered some bridges to be thrown across the Limmat, and gained such advantages as enabled him to invest the town of Zurich. A terrible engagement ensued between the French and the Russian regiments, the latter of whom had replaced the Austrians in front of Zurich; but victory eventually declared on behalf of the republicans, and the Russian general Korsakow was compelled to retire to Eglisau, in order to pass the Rhine. Marshal Suwarrow was no sooner apprised of this misfortune, than he put himself in motion, and, through a series of sanguinary combats, proceeded to Glarus, where he expected to have been joined by some Austrian regiments; but finding himself disappointed, he was obliged to retreat to the country of the Grisons, after losing about three thousand men. He afterwards effected a junction with the troops of general Korsakow: but previously to his undertaking any fresh enterprize, he received orders from his sovereign to reconduct his army into Russia.

Towards the end of October, the French and imperial

imperial armies were opposed to each other on the banks of the Maine, the Enz, the Necker, and the Rhine. The grand object of the republicans was to cover the siege of Philipsburg, which they hoped to carry by the weight of their fire: that of the Austrians was to raise it, and at all events to protect the duchy of Wirtemberg. Great exertions were made, and great abilities exhibited, on both sides; but the disputed fortress was ultimately relieved, and the French, after evacuating Manheim and Nickerrau, were compelled to repass the Rhine.

The court of Vienna, fortified by pecuniary supplies from England, and the accession of Bavarians, Wirtemburgers, and other German troops in British pay, was not to be diverted from its resolutions by Bonaparte's offering to conclude a pacification on the general ground of the treaty of Campo-Formio. The imperial ministers replied to the overtures of the first consul, that the emperor would not enter into any negociation but in conjunction with his Britannic majesty; and notwithstanding the lethargic indifference of many of the Germanic states, and the recent defection of the Russians, the Austrians prepared to prosecute the war with equal vigor and alacrity.

Massena, being appointed to take the command of the discomfited army of Championet, repaired with all possible expedition to Italy, where he issued proclamations for re-establishing confidence among the troops and the inhabitants of the territory of Genoa, all of whom were in a state of insurrection. He effected his design in this respect, by the united force of severity and conciliation; but the state of the army was truly deplorable. The troops which had been stated by the French

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minister at sixty thousand, were reduced to twenty-five thousand, and of these one half were incapable of active duty; the horror excited by the hospitals was so great, that many of the wretched invalids chose rather to die in their own quarters, than to be carried to such a doleful mansion; whole bodies of the soldiery went off without their commanders; and several general officers withdrew themselves without permission.

Whilst Massena was endeavouring, by extraordinary exertions, to remedy or at least to palliate these dreadful misfortunes, the English fleet under lord Keith appeared in the gulf off Genoa, for the blockade of which city it was drawn up in the regular forms; while the Austrian army, under general Melas, approached by land, and extended its front along the whole line of the republican forces.

Melas, being well acquainted with the pitiable condition of his enemy, had contented himself during the winter with observing his motions, by means of a simple cordon; while he disposed his own army throughout Piedmont, Lombardy, the Venetian state, the Bolognese, Ancona, and Tuscany. By these admirable precautions, the French were so completely deceived, that they exulted in the idea of their own superiority, at the very moment when the numerous corps that were to compose the imperial army were on their march to the general rendezvous. Cities, towns, and villages, as by a spontaneous movement, sent forth companies, regiments, and battalions; till in the course of a few days, general Melas was enabled to assemble ten thousand men before Bobbio, ten thousand in front of Tortona, and thirty thousand at Acqui and Alexandria; leaving at the same time

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in the plains of Piedmont the whole of his cavalry, with twenty thousand infantry, and a fine park of artillery.

On the fifth of April, the Austrians made a general attack on the French troops; many of whom were driven back to Ruha, but those at Bergodi-Sornoni and on the heights of Cordibona firmly maintained their ground. The second day of the siege was more terrible. An attack on the right of the French line was made by general Otto, who, with a body of ten thousand men, fell on the first division near Bobbio, in order to open a passage to Genoa. The first division, under general Miolis, was soon repulsed, and compelled to fall back to Quinto, where they rallied and made a successful stand for the defence of the city; the second, commanded by general Gazau, thought proper to retire behind the Scrivia; and although the third division succeeded in throwing a reinforcement into Savona, they could neither save Vado, nor prevent the entire separation of a detachment under Suchet, from the army of Genoa.

The seventh of April proved more auspicious to the French. The imperialists having gained possession of Monte Jaccio, lighted up several fires in the night, and sounded the tocsins in all the adjacent country, in order to alarm the inhabitants of Genoa. Massena perceived the danger that might result from such an artifice, and resolved to perform some exploit in sight of the Genoese, in order to do away the impressions which had been made upon their minds by the first advantages of the Austrians. Accordingly he gave orders for an immediate attack on that part of the imperial army; and his measures were so well concerted with generals Miolis, Darnaud, Hector, Pelitot, and others,

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that the Austrians were defeated with the loss of fifteen hundred prisoners, besides a considerable number in killed and wounded. On the same day, the second division of the French army retook Cazella, Rongo-di-Fornari, and Savigone; and the third division restored the line from Voraggio to Campani.

The following day was taken up, on both sides, in general and particular dispositions of the forces. The dispositions that respected the first division, under general Miolis, were expressly designed for defending the approaches to the city of Genoa; and the commandant of marine was instructed to follow, as far as possible, the movement projected by the commander-in-chief, in order to defend the transports from the small craft of the English.

It has been justly observed, that this was not the blockade of a single place abandoned to itself, but it was the right wing of the French army of Italy completely cut off, which, while it maintained its own ground, gave time to the left wing and the centre to set themselves in motion, and to undertake some decisive enterprize. The imperialists, strong as they were, had not the means of carrying on a siege in form, unless they should borrow artillery from the English; and it must certainly have been a difficult matter, had that expedient been adopted, to convert the British guns, mounted for marine service, into battering cannon.

The nature of the ground divided the whole of the attack into two separate parts, by the course of the Bisagno. The forts Diamant and l'Eperon covered the line of defence on the left; and on the right it was supported by the fort of Richelieu, and five counter-forts, which are attached to it on the prolongation of the eminence. Massena having

ing made all the dispositions which seemed to promise a temporary security to Genoa, projected a grand movement, by which he designed to blockade Savona, retake Vado, and re-establish his communication with general Suchet.

Early on the morning of the ninth of April, the French received intelligence that the Austrians were pouring down from all quarters on Genoa. Massena, however, made no alteration in his division, but continued to make the most vigorous exertions for the execution of his plan; in pursuance of which he hastened to establish his head-quarters at Cogoletto: general Soult was to have been at Sasello in the evening, but an unexpected movement of the imperialists retarded his march; and laid him under the necessity of securing his communication with Genoa.

Next morning general Melas advanced against Massena with three bodies of his army: the division on the right consisted of the brigades of Latterman, Bussy, and Sticker, commanded by count de Palsy; the centre was composed of the brigades of Bellegarde and Beautano, under the orders of general Bellegarde; and the left division consisted of four Austrian regiments, under the count St. Julian. Meanwhile the French general Gazan took a position on the road leading to Pouzonne; and general Poinsot prepared to attack, on the heights of Sasello, the Austrian rear-guard, which was bearing on Verneria.

Poinsot executed his project with such impetuosity, that he cut off part of the regiment of Deutchmeister, and took three pieces of cannon, with two hundred thousand cartridges and six hundred prisoners. But a division of twelve hundred men under general Gardanne were attacked

by the imperialists, and compelled to retire after a sanguinary conflict.

Meanwhile general Soult had gained several advantages, and effected a junction with Fressinet, commander of the small body who followed Massena on the coast. In an engagement which preceded this junction, the Austrians lost several officers of rank, and upwards of a thousand prisoners. The French, however, had no cause of exultation; for their loss was equal to that of their enemies, and their money and provisions had suffered such a sensible diminution, that they were at length obliged to retire towards Genoa, and the forts with which it was environed.

During the fifteen days that the defence of Genoa was maintained by offensive operations, Massena lost such a prodigious number of men, that he clearly perceived nothing more was to be expected from the force of his arms. He therefore resolved to fortify himself in his positions, to discover some means of subsistence, and to exercise the strictest economy in the use of such as yet remained. By means of some vessels which had escaped the vigilance of the English fleet, he sent letters to Corsica and Marseilles, and about the same time he gained intelligence of the march of the army of reserve under Bonaparte. This news rekindled the enthusiastic ardor of his troops, and encouraged him under his accumulated misfortunes.

On the thirtieth of April, Massena resolved to make a vigorous effort, with his corps of reserve, to force the Austrians from their most advanced positions. In this attempt he succeeded; but it was at the expence of a series of desperate actions, in which the combatants, being too near each

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other to make use of musketry, had recourse to their bayonets, and even to stones. After a most prodigious effusion of blood on both sides, the French took several thousand prisoners, and burnt all the scaling-ladders which had been destined for the escalade of Genoa and the adjacent forts. At the same time general Soult made himself master of the post of Deux-Freres, and completed the defeat of the imperialists.

These destructive combats, however, procured no solid advantages to the republicans; but on the contrary augmented their misfortunes, by increasing the number of prisoners, while they were driven to extremities for want of provision. The army of Bonaparte was at too great a distance to afford any relief to Massena; the city of Savona had surrendered to the Austrians; and the bombardment of Genoa, by the English fleet, overwhelmed the inhabitants with such consternation, that a general insurrection was hourly apprehended. At length the illusions of hope entirely vanished, the provisions were totally exhausted, and even the last horses and dogs were nearly consumed, when lord Keith, and the generals Melas, Otto, and St. Julian, invited Massena to an interview, and offered him a capitulation on the most honourable terms. To this overture he replied, that he would consider of it; and the next day he sent his adjutant-general Andreaux, to receive the proposals, and to enter into a negociation for peace.

The first article proposed by the confederates, was, that the army should be permitted to return to France; but that the general should remain prisoner of war. "You, sir," said lord Keith to Massena, "are worth twenty thousand men." But Massena peremptorily declared, that no nego-

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ciation should take place if the word *capitulation* was to be made use of.

In the mean time, the city of Genöa, containing a population of one hundred and sixty thousand souls, remained perfectly quiet, notwithstanding the extreme pressure of famine, and the danger which might be reasonably apprehended from the power and contiguity of the besiegers. Many old people, women, and children, who had been reduced to the necessity of attempting to sustain nature by eating herbs, roots, and impure animals, died of disease or inanition. Each revolving day augmented the public calamity, and every rising sun exhibited fresh objects of misery and lamentation.

On the 4th of June, the principal articles for the evacuation of Gênoa were agreed on between the French and imperialists; and on the next morning a conference was held by the chiefs of the opposite armies, in a small chapel near the bridge of Cornegliano. Upon this occasion Massena displayed much finesse under the cloak of apparent gaiety, which formed a striking contrast with the gravity of the other contracting party, and seemed as if he were not greatly alarmed for the situation of his army: and it was probably owing to that assumed cheerfulness that he ultimately obtained all his demands. A small misunderstanding had taken place, for some time, between the English and the Austrians, on account of the great length to which the siege had been protracted; and Massena artfully endeavoured to widen the breach, by flattering the pride of one party at the expence of the self-love of the other. In a conversation with lord Keith he said, " Do you, my lord, only permit a little corn to be carried into Genoa,

Genoa, and I will engage that these gentlemen (meaning the Austrian generals) shall never set foot there." Towards the end of the conference, he said to the same nobleman, "My lord, if France and England could but understand each other, they would govern the world." During the whole of the negociations lord Keith disclaimed all hard conditions, and frequently told Massena, that it was impossible to refuse any thing to a general who had made such an heroic defence. At length, about seven o'clock in the evening, Massena signed the treaty for the evacuation of Genoa, and the Austrians took possession of the city.

Meanwhile Bonaparte had collected his artillery at the village of St. Pierre, and was preparing to transport it across the Alps:—this was a work of extreme difficulty; but it was indispensably necessary that such a transport should be made, and the following means were used to effect it. All the cannon, being dismounted and placed in troughs hollowed out of trees, were drawn in turns by five or six hundred men, according to the weight of the piece; while the wheels, fixed to poles, were borne on men's shoulders, and the tumbrils and axletrees were forwarded on sledges. One half of a regiment was employed in drawing cannon, while the other half carried the baggage belonging to their corps; and, as an encouragement in this arduous undertaking, the first consul allowed five hundred franks for every piece of ordnance. It was the labour of five hours to reach the monastery of St. Bernard; and they had then eighteen miles of descent, which took up ten hours more. Bonaparte and his staff-officers marched on foot, and were frequently obliged to

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slide down upon the snow, while the men stopped occasionally to take the refreshment of biscuit moistened in snow-water.

The vanguard, having taken possession of the town of Aosta, proceeded to the attack of Chatillon, near which place the Austrians prepared to make a vigorous resistance; but after an obstinate conflict, the republicans proved victorious, and compelled their assailants to shut themselves up in Fort de Bavre.

This fort, from its situation in a narrow neck of ground, seemed to arrest the progress of the whole army, and, unless it could be reduced in four days, every soldier must have perished with hunger, as the provisions were almost exhausted, and no means left of procuring an additional supply. The suburb was immediately occupied by three companies of grenadiers, and at night the republicans climbed up the rocks amidst a shower of balls; but they were soon repulsed with prodigious slaughter. It was then attempted to pass the carriages through the suburb; but this also proved impracticable. At length, however, Bonaparte having ordered a cannon to be placed upon the top of the church, in order to batter the top of the fortress, the Austrians surrendered at discretion.

After reducing the town of Ivrea, and defeating a body of Austrians in the vicinity of Romagno, the French consul advanced to Milan, where he was received with acclamations. Pavia was reduced soon afterwards; and in the subsequent battle of Montebello, the Austrians were defeated with the loss of six thousand prisoners and twelve pieces of cannon.

The French army now advanced to the plain of Maringo,

Maringo, where the preparations on the side of the Austrians seemed to be decisive for battle. At this place both the French and imperialists exhibited extraordinary skill and resolution; and the engagement was supported on both sides with such astonishing firmness, that the balance of victory long continued to waver, and the commanders of both parties were exposed to the most imminent danger, Bonaparte having his clothes pierced with balls in several places, and gen. Melas being twice dismounted by the circumstance of his horse falling under him. At length, however, the French consul, availing himself of an error which Melas had committed, rushed with such irresistible fury upon his enemies, that they were eventually thrown into disorder, and compelled to retreat with the utmost precipitation.

This dreadful defeat induced general Melas to solicit an armistice, and the answer of Bonaparte was dictated by a spirit of moderation. Hostilities were therefore suspended until Melas should receive further orders from Vienna; and the victorious consul returned to Milan, where he solemnly recognized the Cisalpine republic as a free and independent nation.

By the armistice of Maringo, the French army was to occupy all the country lying between the Chiesa, the Oglio, and the Po, and the Mincio was not to be occupied by either of the armies; the castles of Tortona, Alexandria, Turin, Arona, and Placentia, were to be put into the hands of the French by a certain time; the Austrian general was to release all persons, in the fortresses under his command, who might have been imprisoned for political opinions; and it was particularly stipulated that during the armistice no detachments

tachments should be sent from either party into Germany.

Shortly after the articles for an armistice were drawn up and signed, Bonaparte sent general Melas a present of a Turkish sabre, brought from Egypt. The Austrian appeared highly gratified by this mark of attention; and said to the aid-de-camp who delivered it to him, "I am sorry peace is so long delayed: I shall contribute my utmost exertions to obtain it, that I may go and see Bonaparte at Paris. I would even go to see him in Egypt."

A.D. 1800. During these transactions the French army crossed the Rhine, in four great divisions, under the command of generals St. Susanne, St. Cyr, Moreau, and Lecourbe. The division under St. Susanne marched to Offenburgh, and that under St. Cyr advanced toward Fribourg, while Moreau proceeded, without any considerable opposition, to the point where the various divisions had appointed to meet, and Lecourbe made himself master of the castle of Hohenweil.

General Kray, who had succeeded the archduke Charles as commander of the Austrians, was now compelled to evacuate Donaweeschingen in order to check the progress of the enemy. The left wing of the French, under St. Susanne, immediately took possession of that place, and, extending their flanks to the main body of Moreau's army, endeavoured to establish themselves in the lines of Stockach, with a design to oppose the lines of the imperialists. After some petty skirmishes on both sides, an engagement took place at Mosskirk, in which Moreau, assisted by Lecourbe, made some impression on the Au-

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strian battalions, and notwithstanding their gallant exertions, compelled them to retreat with considerable loss. The subsequent actions of Biberach and Memmingen proved equally unfortunate, and general Kray deemed it expedient to retire to Ulm, where he was joined by six thousand Bavarian and Wirtemburg auxiliaries, under the command of baron Deux Ponts.

The enemy now advanced to Rhieneck, little more than a league from Ulm, and seemed inclined to give battle to the imperialists; but general Kray prudently avoided that measure until the promised reinforcements should arrive from Austria. Six battalions of infantry, drawn from the garrison of Vienna, were on their march, and to be followed by six more, and five squadrons of cuirassiers; and the garrisons of several Austrian, Bohemian, and Moravian cities, were appointed to form a body of reserve on the banks of the Adige and the Danube.

Under these circumstances, both generals contented themselves with mutual observation; but the French contrived to turn this state of inaction to their advantage, by laying the whole of Franconia and Swabia under contribution, intercepting the supplies of their enemies, keeping the grand Austrian army on a constant alert, and preventing general Kray from sending any considerable reinforcement to Italy.

For nearly two months Moreau had sought nothing further than to amuse the imperialists by marches and counter-marches, by threatened sieges and sham irruptions, to alarm them for the safety of the hereditary states, and prevent them from paying any attention to the affairs of Italy; but when the victory of Maringo had put the fate

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of Italy into the hands of Bonaparte, Moreau determined to act with more enterprize and vigor. Accordingly he prepared to cross the Danube, in order to bring general Kray to a decisive action; and ordered Lecourbe to pass over with the right wing of his army between Dillingen and Blenheim, while the main army crossed at a point nearer Ulm. The execution of this design was followed by a series of actions on the famous plains of Blenheim, in which the Austrians lost, in killed, wounded, and prisoners, about five thousand men, and the French half that number. The divisions under generals Sztarray and Nauendorf being cut off from the main army of the imperialists, general Kray was obliged to leave Ulm under the protection of a garrison, while he retreated with the remains of his forces to Ingolstadt. Bavaria was now laid under heavy contributions; the duke and duchess of Wirtemberg were compelled to retire, with their family and suite, to Anspach; and the whole electorate of Treves fell into the hands of the enemy; while an army of thirty thousand French and Batavians was marching toward the Upper Rhine, with a design to penetrate into Franconia.

In these embarrassing circumstances the Austrians solicited an armistice, which was granted on the 15th of July. This truce led to a negociation, and in less than a fortnight count St. Julian on the part of the emperor, and the ex-bishop Talleyrand on the part of France, signed preliminaries of peace, on the basis of the treaty of Campo-Formio.

The same distresses which induced the Austrian government to request a suspension of hostilities, urged the necessity of concluding a definitive treaty

treaty of peace. But there were still some circumstances which tended to support the emperor's sinking spirits, and to revive the ambition inherent in his family. Hungary and many of the hereditary states began to exhibit an abhorrence of the intolerable oppression of the republicans; and his imperial majesty had concluded a treaty by which he became indebted to Great Britain in the sum of two millions sterling, not chargeable with interest before the expiration of six months from the conclusion of a peace between him and the French republic. It had also been stipulated that the war should be carried on with all possible vigor, and that neither party should conclude any treaty which did not comprehend the other. The emperor, faithful to these engagements, exerted himself to include the British nation in a treaty of general peace; and when the ensuing correspondence between France and England proved abortive, he positively refused to ratify the preliminaries which had been signed at Paris, alleging that the count St. Julian had exceeded his orders.

Towards the end of August the French government informed its generals, that the emperor had refused to subscribe to the conditions which had been signed by his plenipotentiary, and that the armistice would be at an end on the 7th of September. The general officers and chiefs of corps were also exhorted to improve this interval in such a manner that they might be able to encounter the enemy as soon as they should receive orders. About the same time his imperial majesty issued a proclamation, ascribing the rupture of the armistice to the French, and expressing his

intention of putting himself at the head of his army in Germany.

The first motions of the enemy seemed to indicate an intention of carrying the chief weight of the war into Bohemia: but the grand plan of Moreau's operations was not clearly developed; this campaign being cut short, by decisive advantages gained over the imperialists. On the 29th of November, general Moreau commenced hostilities near the Inn, and carried the Austrian works at Wessemberg: but he was less fortunate in a subsequent engagement with the archduke John (brother of the emperor), in the vicinity of Haag. The Austrian troops were at first driven back by the irresistible fury of their assailants; but victory at length decided in their favor, and the French were repulsed with great slaughter. On the same day an attack was made on an Austrian post near Rosenheim; but the French were driven back with considerable loss, and the prince of Conde's corps acquired great reputation by their cool firmness and intrepid conduct.

Encouraged by these successes, the archduke John resolved to assault the French post at Hohenlinden, and on the 3d of December put his troops on motion for that purpose; but his march was so much retarded by a heavy fall of snow, that only the central column arrived at the place of destination at the time when all the divisions ought to have been ready for action. The French perceived this misfortune, and resolved to convert it to their advantage. Accordingly a division of their army, under Richenpanse, pierced between the left wing of the Austrians and the centre, and assaulted their left flank and rear at the moment when they had formed in front, and commenced

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an attack. The Austrians sustained the conflict, for several hours, with their accustomed bravery: but their centre being repelled by the impetuosity of the French, they were thrown into confusion, and eventually compelled to retire to the heights of Ramsan. General Moreau asserted that the Austrians lost in this engagement ten thousand prisoners, two hundred caissons, and eighty pieces of cannon; but this account was probably exaggerated.

In order to improve this signal advantage, general Moreau pushed on to Saltzburgh, which he took after an obstinate conflict: the subsequent reduction of Newmark cut off all communication between the archduke John and general Mollitor; and the Tyrol was threatened, on three sides, with invasion.

During these transactions, the Gallo-Batavian army under Augereau gained some considerable advantages over the imperialists in Franconia. On the rupture of the armistice, the baron d'Albini, who commanded the troops of Mayence, attacked the Batavian infantry near the bridge of Aschaffenburg; but, after three vigorous assaults, he was effectually repulsed. The Gallo-Batavian army then quitted its cantonments; and general Dumonceau undertook the siege of Wurtzburg, while Augereau repaired to Bamberg in order to give battle to the Austrians and drive them beyond the Rednitz. They occupied two advantageous heights that command Burg-Eberach, and disputed every inch of ground with surprising gallantry; but they were ultimately forced to retreat before the irrisistible fury of their enemies. After this occurrence, the Austrians made several attempts to cut off the com-

communication between Augereau and Moreau, and, if possible, to turn the left of Moreau's army: but they found it impossible to acquire any advantage. For about fourteen days, several skirmishes took place between the outposts; and on the 18th of December a most sanguinary battle was fought between Lauff and Nuremberg. This action was sustained with equal firmness and bravery from nine o'clock in the morning till the close of the day, and the loss on both sides was said to be nearly equal.

Meanwhile the Austrian army of the Danube removed its head-quarters from Straswalden to Skwanstadt, where the archduke Charles * reassumed the chief command. That prince immediately ordered his troops to remain on the defensive; but before he could make the requisite dispositions, the French army of the Rhine advanced in five divisions, and a general engagement ensued, in which the imperialists were defeated wiih prodigious loss. Next morning they endeavoured to make a stand on the heights of Lambach; but, after an obstinate conflict, they

* Among many instances of the humane and generous disposition of prince Charles, the following one is particularly worthy of attention.---Whilst he was on his way from Bohemia to take the command of the army at Skwanstadt, as he approached the scene of action he perceived numbers of wounded and dying soldiers, abandoned by their sompanions, and left on the road, from the want of horses to draw the carriages in their retreat. The archduke was much affected by this spectacle, and immediately ordered the horses to be unyoked from several pieces of ordnance, observing, that the relief of these poor men was an object far nearer his heart than the preservation of a few pieces of cannon.---When general Moreau was informed of this benevolent action, he ordered the cannon to be restored to the Austrians, saying, that he could not think of detaining what had been abandoned from such humane motives.

were again overpowered, and compelled to retire to Lintz, within ninety-two miles of Vienna.

General Moreau now formed his army in three columns; of which the right, under Lecourbe, advanced toward the mountains south of Steyer on the Ens; the centre, commanded by Moreau himself, marched to Steyer; and the left, under Grenier, proceeded on the high road from Lintz towards Vienna. That great city was now overwhelmed with consternation, and the distress of the loyalists was greatly augmented by the behaviour and expressions of many disaffected persons, who seemed to exult at the approach of the enemy: such was the general detestation of the war, and such the progress of French intrigues and principles. A party of life-guards was ordered to escort the imperial family to Offen; the gallery of paintings, the imperial treasury, and other valuable articles, were placed in waggons ready for removal; and the Austrian capital was preparing to sustain a siege; when the archduke Charles brought intelligence that he had concluded an armistice of thirty days with general Moreau.

This armistice assigned to the French army of the Rhine a triangular portion of territory, whose base rested on Wurtzburg and Chiavenna, and whose point rested between Leoben and Packlarn on the Danube. It was not to be for a less duration than thirty days, at the expiration of which time hostilities were not to be resumed until a farther notice of fifteen days, to be dated from the hour when the notification of the rupture should be made public; and the armistice was to be indefinitely prolonged till the notice of a rupture. No corps or detachment, either of the French

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army of the Rhine or of the imperialists in Germany, were to be sent to the respective armies in Italy, so long as no armistice should take place in that country. The general in chief of the army of the Rhine engaged to transmit the present convention to the generals of the Gallo-Batavian army, that of the Grisons, and that of Italy, with a pressing exhortation to conclude a suspension of hostilities.

As soon as general Augereau was informed of the new armistice, he sent to the Austrian generals Simbschen and Klenau, to confer on the settlement of a line of demarkation between the Gallo-Batavian army and the imperial troops in the Upper Palatinate and Franconia. Accordingly it was agreed that the Maine and the Rednitz should separate the two armies as far as Lichtenfells, on the line of neutrality. This line was to comprehend Forkheim, Bamberg, Bannach, Haffalstein, and Lichtenfells; the Gallo-Batavians were to occupy the city and district of Nuremberg; and the general in chief was to establish his head-quarters and his park of artillery at Wurtzburg.

While these negociations were carrying on in Germany, Italy still groaned beneath the scourge of war. But in order to give a clear idea of its present situation, we must take a retrospective view of some events, which have been hitherto postponed to avoid an interruption of the more connected parts of our history.

By the armistice concluded after the battle of Maringo, the French army was to occupy all the country between the Chiesa, the Oglio, and Po; and the Austrians were to retain Tuscany, with the city and citadel of Ferrara. But the Austrians insisted

insisted on keeping possession of an extensive territory, called the Polesino of Ferrara; and during the dispute which resulted from their pretensions, a general insurrection of the people was concerted and encouraged in Tuscany. Hostilities were on the point of renewed, when general Brune, hearing that preliminaries had been signed by count St. Julian, expressed his intention of suspending the motions of his troops until he should receive farther orders from his government. A new convention was soon afterward agreed to at Castiglioni, by which general Brune consented to wait for an answer from Vienna respecting the evacuation of the Ferrarese by the imperialists. No mention was made in this treaty of disarming the levy-en-masse; but this was not in a state of great forwardness; nor, if it had been completely raised, could such a rabble of enervated Italians have been formidable to the veteran troops of France.

The French, however, evidently sought a pretext for an irruption into Tuscany, that they might be enabled, in case of a renewal of the war, to prevent the landing of British forces in that quarter. A general officer was sent in the name of the commander-in-chief to general Sommariva, who commanded in Tuscany, requesting that the armed peasants might be immediately disbanded, and threatening an hostile incursion in case of refusal. As these demands were not attended to, lieutenant-general Dupont entered Florence with a numerous army, while general Clement advanced to Leghorn. The insurgents were immediately dispersed, and the Austrians, to the number of 2500, were permitted to retire to Ancona; but the merchandise of the English (though permitted by the armistice of Maringo to retain its neutrality

neutrality) was, in open violation of public faith, confiscated for the benefit of France. The invasion of Tuscany, however, seems to have had but little effect on the imperial cabinet; for it did not occasion any movements on the part of their armies till the expiration of the truce of Hohenlinden. Some light skirmishes had, indeed, taken place between the advanced posts, but the campaign did not properly begin till the 24th of December.

It appears that the enemy was, at first, inclined to fall upon the Austrians near the lake of Garda, and there to turn the lines of the Mincio: but general Lebrune, animated by the successes of Moreau, resolved to attack them in front. Accordingly a bridge was thrown over the Mincio, the passage effected, and the left bank maintained by a detachment of French forces against the vigorous and repeated exertions of the imperialists. In the course of that day the French took upwards of two thousand prisoners, and several standards; and next morning the passage of the river was carried by the main body at Monzanbano. An order given by the lieutenant-general Delmes for a general charge by the French infantry and cavalry was executed without firing a single cannon; and, after a most obstinate conflict, the Austrians were routed with prodigious slaughter. Meanwhile two French brigades were attacked by a reserve of twelve thousand Hungarian grenadiers; but, having received a timely reinforcement, they defeated the assailants, and made themselves masters of four pieces of cannon, a chest of ammunition, and about two thousand prisoners. At Vallegio they encountered fresh difficulties, from the intrepid firmness of the imperialists; but, after the village had been three times

times taken and retaken, and prodigies of valour had been performed on both sides, the Austrian commander thought proper to retreat; and the French took possession of five pieces of cannon, two howitzers, nine hundred muskets, and eighty horses, besides a prodigious number of prisoners. This defeat, and the arrival of fresh reinforcements to the enemy, induced the Austrians to evacuate the castle of Vellagio, which they had hitherto retained.

Next morning, lieutenant-general Delmas surrounded the redoubts of Salionga, and began to make preparations for an assault: but the Austrians, fully sensible of the impracticability of a successful defence, surrendered at discretion; and fourteen pieces of cannon, two pair of colours, and a thousand prisoners, fell into the hands of the victorious republicans. Elated by these successes, the French proceeded to occupy on their left the heights of Castel-Nuovo, and on their right took post between Legnago and Verona; while some detachments were ordered to lay siege to Peschiera, and blockade Mantua.

Meanwhile the main body of the Austrians had passed the Adige; but they had strengthened with some troops and a numerous artillery an intrenched camp which they had formed near Verona, covering the great road between that town and Mantua. From the reports of a reconnoitring party, it appeared that great numbers of Austrians were drawn up along the whole line of the Adige: the pontoons were, therefore, sent to Boussolingo, and preparations were made for passing the river at that place on the ensuing morning. An attack was to be made in two points: the first at the place where it was really intended that the advanced

vanced guard should pass, and the second to operate as a feint. The division under Boudet received orders to storm the Austrian post at Chiusa, and to advance to the heights of Romada; while another division of infantry and cavalry should pass the Adige, and the right wing, commanded by general Dupont, should take post at Boussolingo.

A. D. 1801. These orders were all executed on the morning of the 1st of January; and in the course of that day the whole army, exclusive of the divisions under Boudet and Rochambeau, gained the left bank of the Adige, and marched forward with such rapidity that the Austrians, after throwing reinforcements into the two forts, deemed it advisable to evacuate the town of Verona. Meanwhile Boudet made himself master of Chiusa, Alla, and Roveredo, and formed a junction with Rochambeau, who had reduced Riva and Torboli, and concentrated his forces at Mori.

Whilst one division of the French army, under general Morencey, was charged with the blockade of the forts of Verona, the advanced guard, with the reserves of infantry and cavalry, advanced towards Vicenza in pursuit of the Austrians; who defended several positions with extraordinary gallantry, and eventually retreated in good order behind Montebello. The French, now pursuing an easy course of success, crossed the Brenta, made themselves masters of Trent, and chased the imperialists from Bassano and Castel-Franco to Salvaroza. In this career the republicans are said to have marched 130 miles in eight days and to have taken upwards of three thousand prisoners. Prodigious numbers of the Austrians were slain in their retreat; and the roads near Salvaroza were

were literally strewed with the bodies of the dead and dying men.

On the 12th of January, the left wing of general Le Brune's army had its foremost columns at Azalo, and by its post was connected with the centre, under the command of general Souchet; the advanced guard was stationed at Salvaroza; and the corps of reserve, with the dragoons and the cavalry, were drawn up in the neighbourhood of Castel-Franco: while the Austrian army lay encamped on the plain of Salvaroza; and, notwithstanding their recent misfortunes, prepared for another engagement.

In this posture of affairs, an Austrian colonel arrived at the French head quarters, and proposed conditions of an armistice, which was accordingly concluded on the 16th of January at Treviso, within twenty miles of Venice. The line of demarkation between the two armies was to be the Tagliamento, from its efflux in the mountains of Tyrol, to the place where it disembogues into the Adriatic. The fortresses of Peschiera, Porto-Legnago, Ancona, and Ferrara, were to be ceded to the French, and the blockade of Mantua was to be continued: but by a new armistice, concluded at Luneville on the 6th of February, his imperial majesty consented to give up Mantua, as an indisputable proof his sincerity.

At this juncture, the measures of the Austrian ministry were generally detested and ridiculed; the nerves of the army were totally relaxed; the sentiments and wishes of the officers were discordant; and almost the only point in which all ranks agreed, was a desire that the war, which had occasioned such a prodigious waste of blood and treasures, should be brought to a speedy conclusion.

Such

Such being the state of the people, and even of the military, his imperial majesty at length resolved to give peace to the empire; and a definitive treaty was accordingly concluded at Luneville, on the 9th of February, between the French republic, and the emperor and the Germanic body.

This treaty was, in all probability, extremely disagreeable to the house of Austria; as its principal articles deprived them of the rich inheritance of their Burgundian ancestors, and almost excluded them from their beloved Italy. Compelled to relinquish the sovereignty of the Belgic provinces, the grand-duchy of Tuscany, and all the fine domains on the left bank of the Rhine, they were, in a great measure, isolated from those points of contact where they had so often exerted their strength against other powers, and on which they had long asserted a right to interfere in the great affairs of Europe. Many able politicians, however, were of opinion that, in the compactness of empire acquired by the accession of Venice, Istria, Dalmatia, and the Venetian isles in the Adriatic, the Austrian family had gained in real strength an ample compensation for the loss of their more extensive, but disjointed, territories.

END OF THE HISTORY OF GERMANY.

ELECTORATE OF SAXONY.

THIS duchy and electorate receives its name from the ancient nation of the Saxons, once the possessors of a considerable proportion of Germany. On the east, it is bounded by Losace; on the north by the margraviate of Brandenburg; on the west by the principality of Anhalt; and on the south by Misnia. The duke is the sixth elector of the empire, and besides this province possesses Misnia, a part of Thuringia, and the marquisate of the higher and lower Losace, which formerly made a part of Bohemia; a part of the county of Mansfield, and the abbey and territory of Quedlemberg.

The air in Saxony, though cold and sharp, is likewise very clear and healthful. Wine is not a produce of the country, but it yields corn in abundance, and the mountains of Misnia contain several mines of silver, copper, and lead. The Saxons are large and robust in person, have very good natural parts, and for polite and agreeable conversation excel the other inhabitants of Germany. Their food, of which they eat much, is chiefly salted, and consequently produces excessive drinking, to which they are too much addicted. The pride of ancestry is here carried to its utmost height. Should a noble so far forget his rank as to ally himself to the family of a plebeian, whatever temptations wealth may throw in his way, he becomes from that moment not only the object of contemptuous scorn, but

even runs some hazard of being cut off by the associates of his former rank.

Lutheranism is the prevailing religion, and the ecclesiastical dignities are principally possessed by Lutheran lords; but Calvinists and Roman catholics are both freely tolerated. The language of the lower orders is a mixture of German and Sclavonian, but the people of rank talk German more pure than in any other part of the empire, and almost all understand French and Italian.

Wirtemburgh, the capital city of the duchy, is situated upon the Elbe and well fortified. Its inhabitants have a great veneration for the church in which Luther and Melancthon are interred, and pride themselves on being foremost in embracing the doctrine of those intrepid reformers in their university, which is the most renowned of all the protestant universities of Germany. The ordinary residence of the elector of Saxony is at Dresden, where his palace and the arsenal are justly the admiration of strangers. Among the many considerable cities belonging to the elector, is Leipsic, celebrated for the three fairs held there every year, which afford the grand mart for the prolific productions of German literature. It claims all the rights of a free and imperial city, but this the elector strongly contests.

Fryburg, where all the princes of the electoral house of Saxony are interred is also a large and strong city. The four cities and bailliages, sequestered from the archbishop of Magdeburgh by the peace of Prague, and afterwards by that of Westphalia, for the elector of Saxony, are Dama, Gutterbeck, Duerfurt and Bork, all more important from their revenue than desirable for situation.

The

The administration of justice in all the states, without appeal to the aulic chamber of the emperor or to the imperial chapter of Wetzlaar, is, in the last stage, vested in the elector, who still retains the rights of arms, protection and superiority over Magdeburgh, Mersberg, Lower Losace, the possessions in the Voightland, and county of Heuneberg, with the bishopric of Naumberg, which were in the year 1656 divided by the elector John George the first, among his four sons, John George the second, who succeeded him in the electorate, Augustus, Christian and Maurice, and which partition, as they all married and had children, still continues.

The privileges of the elector as grand marshal of the empire are very considerable. He carries the naked sword before his imperial majesty at his election and when he holds a court. This right was disputed by Wenceslaus duke of Brabant, but the emperor Sigismund confirmed it to the electors of Saxony by a special decree. In the diets and assemblies of the empire, especially at the election of an emperor, the regulations for the lodgings of the princes and deputies, and the orders necessary to procure a proper supply of provisions at a reasonable rate, all devolve upon him. He announces the day of assembly appointed by the archbishop of Mentz, and in the absence of the ambassador of the elector of Mentz, the conducting of the assembly falls to him. The right of putting his seal upon the effects of the ministers, who die during the diet, is however disputed. In his absence, the discharge of these duties is performed by the ministers of the count of Pappenheim his vicar. The jurisdiction of the grand marshal extended formerly to the games

games in the camp. No one was permitted to play unless under the standard of the marshal, from whence arose a certain revenue. When the emperor Sigismund suppressed this practice, he indemnified the marshal by a pension of two hundred florins upon the city of Nordlingen, and with part of the tax paid by the Jews of Nuremberg, which the count of Pappenheim now enjoys. The grand marshal has also the protection of trumpeters, and all other performers on the musical instruments of war, from which the electoral society of trumpeters in Saxony claim an universal jurisdiction in all questions concerning that art, although the marshals of the court claim that right in the other states of the empire. The right of presiding in the diets, upon the vacancy of the see of Mentz, or the absence of that elector's envoy, is disputed with the elector of Saxony by the electors of Triers and Cologne; as is also the direction of the evangelic states. In quality of elector, he is the director and chief of the circle of Upper Saxony and vicar of the empire when vacant. As margrave of Misnia, he is grand huntsman of the empire, and as margrave of Losace he has a right to ennoble. The principal of his hereditary officers is the marshal of Laser, who exercises that office in the acts of ceremony, and in the provincial diets.

The ancient boundaries of Saxony extended from the river Eydor through Westphalia, almost as far as the lower Rhine; the German ocean was on the west, and eastward it reached almost as far as Prussia. The Saxons are by some supposed to be descended from the Macedonians, but probability rather favours their being the ancient Catti described by Tacitus. The Roman historians

historians are silent about this nation for the first three hundred years after Christ, but Danish writers notice them sixty years before the christian æra, and relate the wars about Jutland. Eutropius and Orosius, the first Roman historians who break this silence, mention their being early remarkable for their expeditions upon the German or British sea.

The government of the whole Saxon nation was vested in twelve chieftains chosen annually; and they elected from among themselves a chief judge, but who had no farther authority. A king was chosen in time of war, whose power ceased on the return of peace. Harderick is the first Saxon king mentioned in history. His successor Anserick, by driving the Thuringi out of the duchy of Bremen and the adjacent country, seems to have led the way for that system of invasion and conquest so successfully pursued by the German nations. It had been a fashion with them, for a century or two, to emigrate, Hengist the fourteenth of their kings having in the fifth century established a Saxon government in England. The province of Thuringia was long warmly disputed by the Franks and the Saxons, and the former having been converted to christianity, began to hate the Saxons, whose aversion to christianity principally arose from its being the religion of the Franks. Charles Martel, high steward to the French king, was however resolved to compel the Saxons to change their religion, but their entire reduction was reserved for his grandson Charlemagne.

Charlemagne, on succeeding his father Pepin, who had dethroned his sovereign Childeric the third, resolved to pursue the A. D. 772.

object his grandfather had attempted. He accordingly attacked and defeated the Saxons, obliging their king Wittekind to fly into Denmark, who, after losing seventeen battles, finding himself totally unable to resist the force of the victorious Charlemagne, accepted the conditions offered him, and was baptized with his whole family by Lullo bishop of Mentz. Some provinces were left to Wittekind; and Charlemagne changed the black horse wore in his escutcheon into a white one, which is retained to this day by the house of Brunswick. It was not however till 804, after a calamitous war of thirty years, that the Saxons were entirely subdued, when Charles had defeated them in numerous battles, and transported many thousands to Flanders, Brabant, and other countries.

Wittekind in his old age made war against the
A. D. 807. Suabians, but was unable to endure the fatigue, being suffocated in his armour by the great heat of the weather, and buried at Angria in Westphalia. His son Wigbert made a journey to Rome out of devotion, and his great grandson Ludolph employed himself in a manner more befitting a sovereign, in extending the territories which his forefathers had bequeathed to him. After the death of Lewis IV. Otho, Ludolph's youngest son, was elected emperor, but declined that dignity on account of his great age. His son Henry, surnamed the Fowler, was afterwards, on the death of Conrad, declared emperor; the dying monarch having himself desired his brother to carry the imperial ensigns to Henry, the succession being at this time more in the appointment of the deceased than the electors. Henry to secure the frontiers

of his empire against irruptions, appointed margraves or governors of frontiers in Sleswick, Brandenburg, Misnia, and Losace, as Charlemagne had done in Austria and Moravia. He founded and fortified many cities, and ordered the youth to be trained up in arms, that they might be more expert in repelling invasions. He appointed his son Otho his successor, whose many warlike exploits obtained him the surname of the Great. Otho converted the Danes to christianity, and left Saxony and the imperial dignity to his son surnamed Rufus, who was succeeded also by his son, Otho III. surnamed Mirabilia Mundi.

A. D. 960.

The wars which Otho the Great had to maintain in Italy, obliging him to be frequently absent from Germany, he was induced to give that part of Saxony next to the Danes, and the Heneti or Sclavi, first for repelling any irruption, and afterwards as an hereditary fief, to Herman Billing one of his ministers, whose conduct had pleased him;—to this he added the title of the duke of Saxony. The emperor however reserved the greatest part of the territory to his own family. The posterity of Herman enjoyed this dignity for one hundred and forty-six years; but the male issue became extinct in Magnus, great great grandson of Herman the first duke. Magnus, who died in 1105, left two daughters; one married to Henry duke of Bavaria; the other to Lotharius count of Saplinberg. The duke of Bavaria was clearly entitled to the duchy of Saxony, but the emperor Henry V., favouring Lotharius, conferred the dignity on him. It however reverted to the duke of Bavaria's family in the following generation, his

his grandson, Henry the Proud, succeeding in right of his wife, the only daughter of Lotharius, who had now become emperor. Henry, having acquired the title of duke of Bavaria by his father's death in 1127, conquered Tuscany, and become possessed of several other provinces, resigned to his father-in-law the whole duchy of Saxony, which he had extended as far as Lubec. Lotharius, previous to his death in the following year, declared Henry his successor to the empire, but Conrad, who had been disputing the imperial crown with the deceased emperor for five years, was now elected emperor, and on Henry's refusing to deliver up some of the possessions, was at his desire put to the ban of the empire. Henry however, notwithstanding this harsh proceeding, still kept possession of great part of Saxony, many of his subjects remaining faithful to him; but an arrangement being proposed at Quedlemberg, he was there poisoned, while the subject was under discussion, in the fortieth year of his age.

Henry the Lion succeeded his father at the early age of ten years, and a peace being concluded with the emperor under the administration of his uncle Guelph, he was reinstated in Saxony, and, upon the death of his mother, in the dukedom of Bavaria. He afterwards lost all his possessions except Brunswick and Luneberg, having incurred the displeasure of the emperor, through whose influence he was put to the ban of the empire. That part of Saxony which forms the electorate was upon this occasion given to Bernard of the house of Anhalt.

A. D. 1139.

Bernard

Bernard III. was the youngest son of Albert the Bear, count of Ascania, descended of a very ancient Saxon family, and related to Wittekind, the last king of the Saxons. He died in 1212, leaving two sons, Albert, who succeeded him in the electorate, and Henry the Old, founder of the house of Anhalt. A. D. 1180.

Albert I. died in 1260, leaving two sons, Albert the second his successor, and John, the founder of the house of Saxe Lawenberg.

Albert II. died in 1311, and was succeeded by his only son Rodolphus, who died in 1356, leaving two sons, Rodolphus II. his successor, and by a second marriage Wenceslaus, who succeeded to the duchy upon his half brother Rodolphus the second dying without issue.

Wenceslaus left two sons, Rodolphus and Albert, both of whom succeeded to the electorate in succession; and the younger Albert, dying without issue in the year 1422, the succession was disputed by the dukes of Saxe Lawenberg, the counts Palatine and margraves of Brandenberg, but the emperor Sigismund invested Frederic the Warrior, landgrave of Thuringen and margrave of Misnia, with the electorate.

Frederic the Warlike, the ancestor of the modern electors of Saxony, was, according to some, descended from Wittekind the Great. He was succeeded by his son Frederic, surnamed the Pacific, who left two sons and four daughters. His eldest son and successor Ernest was the father of Frederic, who appears to have been justly surnamed the Wise. Upon the death of Maximilian the first, the imperial crown was offered to him, which he refused, and voted for Charles the fifth. He was the author, on this occasion, in

in order to effectually secure the liberties of Germany, of the capitulation, which all the emperors have since been obliged to swear to before their election. This wise prince would never marry, and was one of the first protectors of Luther. He was succeeded by his brother John, surnamed the Constant, who was equally zealous as his deceased brother had been for the establishment of Lutheranism. John was succeeded by his son John Frederic, surnamed the Magnanimous, one of the principal supporters of the protestant religion and chief of the Smalkaldic league. By this, however, he incurred the powerful hatred of Charles the fifth, which was increased by his opposition to the election of Ferdinand as king of the Romans. He notwithstanding maintained a strenuous contest against the emperor, but having lost the battle of Mulberg, where he was made prisoner, he was deprived of his electorate and the greatest part of his states, which were given to his cousin Maurice. He consented to his deprivation before his death, contenting himself with the counties of Altemburgh, Sacksenburgh, Hisenburg, &c. with the title of elector till his death; and his sons also subscribed this resignation. Maurice, who thus succeeded to the electorate, was cousin-german to the last elector, Albert, the younger son of Frederic the Pacific, being his grandfather.

Maurice, leaving no male issue, was succeeded by his brother Augustus surnamed the Pious, and at whose death the electorate devolved upon his sixth son Christian the first, who warmly embraced the doctrines of Calvin, which he introduced into Saxony. Christian the second, being a minor when his father

A. D. 1553.

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ther Christian I. died, the government was conducted by his guardian the duke of Weimar for ten years, who again introduced Lutheranism.

The next elector was John George the first, brother of Christian the second, who died without children. He was succeeded by his son John George the second, who left one son, afterwards John George the third, who was made grand huntsman of the empire in 1662. He acquired great military fame in the wars between the French and Turks, and particularly distinguished himself at the seige of Vienna.—His two sons, John George the fourth, and Frederic Augustus, both succeeded him in turns. The former, after signalizing himself in the war upon the Rhine, and in Hungary, against the Turks, died of the small-pox at Dresden, leaving no issue.

A. D. 1611.

Frederic Augustus had greatly attached himself from his youth to the interests of the house of Austria. His military character was established in the wars in Hungary against the Turks, and he afterwards commanded the imperial army upon the Rhine. The interest and solicitations of the house of Austria raised him to the throne of Poland, when he embraced the catholic religion, and was crowned at Cracovia. In a luckless hour, he entered into a league against Sweden with Peter the Great, and the king of Denmark, which was founded principally on Peter's ambition to acquire the reputation, and enjoy the fortune of a conqueror. They soon found themselves however not a little mistaken in their estimation of the talents of their youthful opponent. No sooner did the occasion call, than the bold genius of Charles began to display

A. D. 1694.

display itself. This powerful confederacy, instead of disconcerting, only roused his courage. Copenhagen was presently at his feet; the Russians were defeated at Warsaw; and, early in the ensuing campaign, after defeating the Poles and Saxons at the Duna, he entered Birzen in triumph, where the confederates had but a few months before planned his destruction. It was here, under the stimulating influence of resentment, that he resolved on depriving the elector of Saxony of the crown of Poland.

Frederic Augustus was however determined not to lose his kingdom without a struggle. With his Saxon guards, upon which he placed his chief dependence, and a considerable body of Polish troops, amounting all together to about 24,000 men, he advanced to meet Charles, who had little more than half that number. They fought in a spacious plain near Glisaw, between Warsaw and Cracow; and though Augustus performed every thing that could be expected from a gallant prince fighting for his crown, he was defeated with great slaughter. Thrice he rallied his troops in person, and attempted to restore the battle, but in vain. The Saxons alone could be said to fight for him. The Poles fled. The camp, the baggage, the cannon, and even the military chest of Augustus, fell into the hands of the victorious Charles. This decisive defeat did not however drive Augustus to despair. He assembled a diet, where, by his affability, engaging manner, and fine accomplishments, he in a great measure recovered the affections of his subjects. He again met the Swedes at Pultausk. The armies were nearly equal, each consisting of about 10,000 men. Yet so

great

great was the terror which the name of Charles inspired, that one half of the Swedes fled at his approach, and the rest were soon routed. Augustus now fled into Saxony. He died at Warsaw, and the throne was declared vacant. It was at the disposal of Charles, who, contrary to the advice of his ministers, refused taking it for himself, declaring that he had more pleasure in giving away than conquering kingdoms; and Stanislaus, palatine of Pomania, was immediately raised to the regal chair. But Charles did not stop here. He entered Saxony at the head of 24,000 men, and having laid the whole country under contribution, pitched his camp at Alt Ranstadt, near the plains of Rutzer, rendered famous by the memorable victory and death of Gustavus Adolphus. Unable to contend with such an opponent, Augustus was compelled to sue for peace, which he obtained under the most humiliating conditions. He was forced to renounce all pretensions, and acknowledge Stanislaus as lawful sovereign of Poland.

Fortune, which had so long attended the gallant Charles in his career of conquest, was now preparing for him a severe reverse. He quitted Saxony at the head of 43,000 men, to march against the Czar, who retired upon his approach, and passed the Boristhenes. Finding it impossible, through Peter's precautions, to march directly to Moscow, Charles attempted a passage through the Ukraine, in which, after encountering the most unheard of difficulties, he arrived in the neighbourhood of Pultowa, of which place he attempted to make himself master, notwithstanding it was defended by a strong garrison, and a covering army of 70,000 men, while his own

own army did not exceed 27,000. Disdaining the idea of waiting for battle in his entrenchments, he attacked the Russians, and after the most desperate battle almost ever known, his whole army was utterly routed and dispersed. No victory was ever attended with more important consequences. Charles, in one day, lost the fruit of nine years successful war, and his veteran army, which had carried terror wherever they marched, was totally annihilated. The elector of Saxony, hearing of the defeat of his conqueror, protested against the treaty of Alt Ranstadt, as extorted from him by force, and re-entered Poland. Stanislaus was forced to relinquish his authority, and Augustus once more found himself in possession of the Polish throne. The remainder of his reign was however disturbed by domestic troubles, and when surprised by death, he was occupied with a design of rendering the crown of Poland hereditary in his family. With this view he had planned a division of the Polish dominions, but aware that this was impracticable without the concurrence of the king of Prussia, he attempted to discover from marischal de Grumkou the sentiments of his master. Grumkou was no less anxious to divine the intentions of Augustus. Thus mutually actuated, they contrived to make each other drunk: the death of Augustus was the consequence. He was endowed with extraordinary bodily strength, a sound understanding, a social disposition, and many princely accomplishments. In a fit of gallantry, he once twisted a horse-shoe in the presence of a fine woman, in order to give her some idea of his personal power, and at the same time presented to her a purse of gold,

to

to make her sensible of his generosity. It has been well observed, that love never spoke a more eloquent language. On the duke of Orleans' death, which was occasioned by neglecting his usual time of bleeding, being seized with an apoplexy in the arms of the dutchess de Valori, and expiring, he wantonly exclaimed in the words of Scripture, "O may I die the death of this *just* man;" alluding to his at once paying the debt of nature and the debt of love!

A. D. 1733. Frederick Augustus left only one son, who succeeded his father in the electoral dignity, and the hereditary possessions of his house, with the title of Frederick Augustus the third. The crown of Poland was however again disputed by Stanislaus, who had become father-in-law to Louis the XVth, and was a second time chosen king. Upon this the Emperor, assisted by the Russians, compelled the Poles to proceed to a new election, and Frederick Augustus was seated in the throne. Upon the death of the emperor Charles the sixth, Augustus the third, together with many other claimants, advanced pretensions to the whole Austrian succession, in right of his wife, eldest daughter of the emperor Joseph, who was the elder brother of Charles the sixth. A general war was the necessary consequence of the contending demands, in which the elector of Saxony joined the side of the king of Prussia and the elector of Bavaria, afterwards emperor, with the title of Charles the seventh. Upon the treaty of peace, which was concluded at Breslau in 1742, the elector of Saxony obtained certain places in the circles of Elbogen, Saltzer, Leutmeritz, and Bruntzlaw, in Bohemia, in consideration of which he guaranteed

teed to the Queen of Hungary the possession of the remainder of the kingdom.

A. D. 1745. Upon the death of the Emperor Charles the seventh, the court of Versailles made an offer of the imperial crown to Augustus, but he, sensible that it was not in their gift, very prudently refused it, unless it could be procured without violence. The death of the emperor was the forerunner of a peace, equally necessary to all parties. After the treaty of Breslau, the elector of Saxony, animated by a British subsidy, had espoused the cause of the queen of Hungary, in consequence of which great part of his hereditary dominions were overrun by Prussian troops. A treaty was therefore concluded on the 14th of December between Augustus, as elector of Saxony, and the king of Prussia, by which Augustus agreed to pay one million of German crowns at the next fair of Leipsic, for the evacuation of his hereditary dominions.

A. D. 1757. Saxony had now enjoyed for some years a state of tranquillity and peace, when the ambition of Augustus involved him in a secret treaty with the courts of Vienna and Petersburgh to attack the king of Prussia, and effect a partition of the dominions of the house of Brandenburgh. The king of Prussia suspecting the designs of his enemies, resolved to anticipate them by carrying the war into their dominions, instead of coolly waiting its approach in his own. He accordingly entered Saxony with a great army, consisting of seventy battalions, and eighty squadrons, divided into three bodies, which pursued different routes, and assembled by concert at Dresden. Augustus, unable to resist so powerful a force, abandoned his capital, which

which was immediately occupied by the Prussians, and joined his little army of 14,000 men encamped at Pirna. This camp was deemed impregnable, and Augustus hoped that it would always secure him a communication with Bohemia, from whence he might receive succour. He therefore refused to listen to the king of Prussia's overtures, who lost no time in surrounding the camp, with the hope, that by cutting off the supplies, he might force the Saxons to surrender. Accordingly, after giving battle to, and defeating the Austrians under Marshal Brown at Lowositz, who had advanced to relieve Augustus, the Saxons, finding they had no hope of relief, and no choice left, but to perish or surrender prisoners of war, embraced the latter alternative; and Augustus, who had taken shelter in the castle of Konigstein, was forced to abandon his hereditary dominions, and retire into Bohemia. The king of Prussia having taken up his winter-quarters in Saxony, levied heavy contributions on the unhappy Saxons, seized the public revenues, made himself master of the archives of Dresden, and even ordered the secret cabinet, in which the papers relative to foreign transactions were kept, to be violently broke open, though the queen of Poland placed herself against the door. He there found abundant proofs of the conspiracy formed against him, and of the share which Augustus had taken in the scheme.

The generals of the combined French and Imperial armies, in vain attempted, in the ensuing campaign, to drive the Prussians out of Saxony. Their armies were every where defeated, and their plans

A. D. 1753.

plans rendered abortive by the vigilance and activity of Frederick. Fortune at last, however, became as inconstant to the Prussian hero, as she had been before unfavourable to his enemies. Dresden, and the other principal cities of the electorate, became alternately possessed by Austrians and Prussians, while the whole country suffered most lamentably from being so long the theatre of a bloody war. Saxony was little more than a frightful waste, presenting only objects to excite terror, pity, and despair. It has often, however, been remarked, that this country sooner revives from the dreadful calamity of plunder and devastation than any other in the German empire; and the observation is just.

This dreadful contest was at length terminated by a treaty between Prussia and Saxony, concluded at Hubertsburgh on the 15th of February 1763, a separate convention having, at the same time, been entered into between Austria and Prussia, the result of which was, that both parties consented to sit down as they began. It was indeed said that there was a separate article for indemnifying the elector of Saxony for his heavy losses; but if any such agreement was made, it never was carried into execution. Augustus was now enabled to return to his hereditary dominions, from which he had been exiled six years. He had unfortunately engaged in designs too vast for his power or capacity; and he had no leisure to reflect on his imprudent alliance. Flying from his country, and leaving his family and his palace in the possession of his enemies, he had retired to Poland. His queen consort died in a sort of captivity,

A. D. 1763.

captivity, overcome with the alarms, the vexations, and the indignities she suffered. Augustus himself, broken down by every kind of misfortune, had undergone every trial which could affect his interest or his affections as a sovereign, husband, and father. It is no wonder therefore, that his constitution, already impaired by age, at length gave way. He fell into a kind of lethargic drowsiness, and died on the 5th October 1763, in his 76th year. It must be admitted, that the king of Prussia's treatment of Saxony during the late war was unjustifiable, and his conduct in transporting the artists of the famous Dresden china from Meissen to Berlin, was one of the most unwarrantable exercises of the rights of conquest almost ever known. The elector was under the necessity, from the situation of his dominions, of joining one party or the other; and it was this circumstance which induced the Austrians to sacrifice every thing to procure the evacuation of Saxony, which had suffered so severely for its connection with that house.

Frederic Christian, the eldest son and successor of Augustus, died in a few weeks after his father, and was succeeded by his son Frederic Augustus, then only thirteen years of age. For five years the administration of affairs was conducted by Prince Francis Xavier, brother of the deceased elector, with the greatest prudence and moderation, and on his nephew's attaining the age of eighteen, he resigned to him the kingdom, greatly improved by his management, and the period of repose which had happily intervened.

A. D. 1763.

The present elector has had a long and happy reign, having carefully studied the security,

protection,

protection, and renovation of his country. A long and uninterrupted period of peace has given effect to the exertions of the elector, and Saxony is at present in the best condition it has ever been. Frederic Augustus is of the middle size, and by no means deficient in solid endowments. He has no children, and his brother and successor prince Charles is unmarried. In failure of issue by any of the present family, the electorate goes to the Ernestine branch.

ELECTORATE OF BAVARIA.

THIS duchy was formerly a kingdom extending from the mountain of Franconia to the frontiers of Hungary and the Adriatic Gulf. The whole is at present comprehended under the modern divisions of Upper and Lower Bavaria, consisting of twelve counties, which, according to the laws of Franconia, are sufficient to make a duchy. Bavaria contains thirty-five cities, of which Munich is the capital, ninety-four towns, seven hundred and twenty castles, four thousand seven hundred villages, eight great abbies, seventy-five cloisters or monasteries, exclusive of those of the mendicants. It is bounded eastward by Bohemia and Austria, by Suabia towards the west, towards the north by Franconia, and by Tyrol on the south. The duke of Bavaria is not, however, sovereign of all this country, there being many free cities within its limits, one of which is Ratisbon, and several lordships both ecclesiastical and secular.

Bavaria is divided into four great bailliages or governments, where justice is administered to the people annexed to each district. By the last treaty of Westphalia, the Upper Palatinate was united to this duchy, and the duke also possesses the landgraviate of Leichtenberg and the county of Kaag. The inhabitants are strong and laborious, and exercise themselves much in shooting with rifled muskets at a mark or elevated pole, in order to render themselves more expert in time of war.

All

All historians agree that this house is one of A. D. 1180. the most ancient in Germany. After various interruptions, Bavaria was restored by the emperor Frederic the first, to Otho, landgrave of Wittelsbach, surnamed the Grand. He was succeeded by his son Louis the first, who destroyed Wittelsbach because his cousin, who resided there, had killed the emperor Philip. Otho the Illustrious died in 1245, and divided his possessions between his two sons, Louis the second and Henry. Louis the second, called the Severe, because he put his wife to death upon a false suspicion of adultery, had by his second wife two sons Rodolphus and Louis, whose descendants to this day remain chiefs of two great families, the present electors of Bavaria being descended from Louis, the younger, who afterwards became emperor. Louis was succeeded by his second son Stephen of Landshut called the Old, to whose third son John surnamed the Pacific, the duchy fell.

Ernest eldest son of John had a great share in A. D. 1397. the favour of the emperor Sigismund, whom he greatly assisted in his war against the Hussites. He was succeeded by his son Albert the third, called the Pious, who was elected king of Bohemia, but refused that crown. Albert the fourth, called the Wise, entered into a war for the succession of the branches of Ingolstadt and Landshut, in which he was assisted by the emperor. The claim was at last compromised.

William the fourth, called the Constant, succeeded his father, and was one of the A. D. 1508. chiefs of the Catholic league formed at Nurembergh against the Lutherans. His successor

successor Albert the fifth surnamed the Magnanimous, was greatly attached to the house of Austria, and introduced into his family the privilege of birthright, in consequence of which his eldest son succeeded him, without any division of the states, as had been usual. William the fifth, called the young, gave the name of Wilhelmina to the branch of Bavaria. He resigned the government to his son Maximilian, and retired into the solitude of the Chartreuse, near Ratisbon, where he lived thirty years, and died in 1626, aged 76.

A. D. 1651.

Maximilian the first, called the Solomon, warmly supported the interests of the house of Austria in Germany, as a return for which service, the Emperor bestowed upon him, in 1623, the electorate of the Upper Palatinate, of which Frederic the Constant, elected king of Bohemia, had been deprived. Maximilian was succeeded by his son Ferdinand, a prince of great prudence and wisdom, who truly understood his own interests, and was greatly beloved by his subjects. He wisely maintained a perfect neutrality in the wars between Germany and France. He died in his forty-fourth year, and was succeeded by his son Maximilian, who entirely devoted himself to the service of the emperor Leopold, and greatly distinguished himself in Hungary, where he commanded the Emperor's army for some campaigns, and expended each year a million of crowns in supporting his troops. He was made governor of the Spanish Netherlands by the king of Spain, which he held during that king's life; but in the war of the succession of Spain, refusing to engage with the Emperor Leopold,

Leopold, he and his brother, the elector of Cologne, were put to the ban of the empire, and deprived of their states, by the sole authority of the emperor; in which, however, they were re-established by the peace of Baden. He was succeeded by his son Charles Albert, whose three sons all died in their childhood.

Charles Albert, on the death of the emperor Charles the sixth, laid claim to the kingdom of Bohemia on the strength of an article in the will of the emperor Ferdinand the first, brother to Charles the fifth, notwithstanding the succession to all the Austrian dominions belonged to Maria Theresa, the late emperor's daughter, by virtue of the Pragmatic league. He also concluded a treaty with the king of France at Nymphenburg by which France engaged to assist the elector with his whole force in order to raise him to the imperial throne, and the elector on his part, engaged that he would never attempt to recover any of the towns or provinces of the empire, which the French might conquer, that he would, in his imperial capacity, renounce the barrier treaty, and agree that France might retain irrevocably whatever places she might subdue in the Austrian Netherlands. A treaty was also entered into between Louis XV. and the king of Prussia, in which it was stipulated, that the elector of Bavaria, together with the imperial crown should possess Bohemia, Upper Austria and the county of Tyrol; Prussia and Saxony being also provided for by the treaty. The elector being, in consequence of these treaties, joined by the French forces, immediately commenced hostilities at the head of seventy thousand men, and was, towards the conclusion of the campaign

A. D. 1741.

paign

[illegible] crowned king of Bohemia at Prague, elected emperor at Frankfort, under the name of Charles the seventh, and invested with the imperial ensigns. The palatines of Hungary, incensed at this conduct, lost no time in passing a solemn act of state, by which they gave a perpetual exclusion to the elector and his posterity from the the throne of Hungary.

The good fortune of Charles seems to have terminated with his elevation to the imperial throne. On the very day of his election, he received an account of the reverses his army had met with, which was soon followed by the Austrians recovering all the conquests which the French and Bavarian armies had made, and nothing but the intrepid spirit and genius of Belleisle, could have saved the whole army from famine, or surrendering prisoners of war, which he effected by his celebrated retreat from Prague. Charles now found himself abandoned by his allies, and stript of all his dominions. He was accordingly reduced to the necessity of taking refuge in Frankfort, where he lived in indigence and obscurity; an illustrious beggar, depending on the bounty of France for a precarious subsistence.

The haughty behaviour of the queen of Hungary, who not only refused to listen to any terms of accommodation, but avowed her purpose of keeping possession of Bavaria and the Upper Palatinate as an indemnity for the loss of Silesia, produced a great change in the sentiments of the principal German powers. Their jealousy of the house of Austria was revived, and their pride wounded by the degradation of the imperial dignity in the person of Charles

Charles the seventh. A treaty was negotiated, and the greatest preparations made for obliging the queen of Hungary to acknowledge him as emperor, and reinstate him in his dominions. The war having accordingly recommenced with vigour, Charles the seventh got once more possession of his capital, and the French were driven out of Bavaria. The retreat of the Prussians, however, filled him with apprehensions of being a third time chased from his dominions, when death freed him from a complication of bodily ills, aggravated by the anguish of a wounded spirit. His son and successor Maximilian Joseph, wisely concluded a peace with the queen of Hungary, on the 22d April 1745, by which he was put in possession of his hereditary dominions, having renounced all right to the Austrian succession, and consented to give his vote for the Grand Duke at the election of an emperor.

A. D. 1777.

Maximilian Joseph died on the 30th of September 1777, by which the male line of that family became totally extinct. No political event which had for years occurred in Germany threatened more seriously to disturb the tranquillity which had so long prevailed. The late elector was still in the vigour of his age, about fifty years old, and of a strong constitution: though an amiable, mild, and beneficent prince, he was deficient in vigour and energy of character. His facility of temper and want of economy produced numberless abuses. Possessing neither ambition nor military talents, he manifested no wish to augment his political power, and only aspired to maintain his dominions in peace. In him expired the Gulielmine line

line of the Palatinate house. He was succeeded by the elector palatine Charles Theodore, as head of the Rodolphine branch. The empress queen now lost no time in ordering her armies to seize that part of Bavaria and the Upper Palatinate, which the Bavarian house had been invested with as fiefs from the empire, and which they thought proper at this juncture to seize as vacant. Whether from the desire of tranquillity, his inability to resist so powerful a competitor, or any concealed motive of private interest, does not appear; but the elector palatine not merely submitted to the demands of Maria Theresa, but even ratified them by a formal stipulation. The Duke of Deux-ponts, his nephew and presumptive successor, did not however submit to be thus despoiled of his future inheritance. In conjunction with the elector of Saxony and the duke of Mecklenburg, both of whom had also claims on the Bavarian territory, he applied to the king of Prussia to support his rights, a request which Frederic readily granted. A war between the courts of Vienna and Berlin actually broke out, though fortunately for Germany it lasted but one campaign, and was concluded without any decisive battle. The weighty interference of Russia accelerated the peace which was finally concluded at Teschen, on the thirteenth of May, 1779. The convention with the elector was by the treaty in some respects annulled, but Austria was permitted to retain a part of the Bavarian territories between the Danube and the rivers Inn and Salza, and the Palatine house was reinvested with the fiefs of Bohemia. The demands of Saxony and Mecklenburgh were also compromised. Tranquillity was thus once more restored to the

 empire,

empire, and the elector, who was perfectly unambitious, and more attached to his pleasures than desirous of aggrandizing his house or extending his dominions, divided his time between the gratifications of appetite and the pursuits of literature. In the latter his attainments were very considerable. His conduct in tamely permitting and even sanctioning the dismemberment of part of his dominions by Austria, may most probably be attributed to the aversion he had conceived against his successor the duke of Deux-ponts, who excited his resentment by various acts of opposition: and the circumstance of never having any children might render him more indifferent about transmitting his inheritance to his successor entire.

A. D. 1780. The peace which had now so long prevailed, had nearly been once more disturbed, from a proposal being made to exchange the whole country of Bavaria for the Austrian Netherlands, excepting Namur and Luxenburg, with the title of king of Burgundy. It was said that the Russian ambassador had proposed the consent of his court to the duke of Deux-ponts, and desired him to give his final answer in eight days time with the verbal declaration that the plan would at all events be put in execution, whether he gave his sanction or not. This the court of Berlin strenuously opposed as inconsistent with the treaty of Teschen, because the exchange had, at that time, been finally rejected, and such an aggrandizement of the Austrian power was inconsistent with the independence of the other states. The three electoral courts of Saxony, Brandenburgh and Hanover, also entered into a defensive league for the sole purpose of

[illegible]serving the constitution of the empire, and which was soon joined by the elector of Mentz and several other princes. This appearance of opposition occasioned the plan to be entirely abandoned.

We now come to the period when the whole of Europe, and Germany in particular, was convulsed to the centre by the violence of the French revolution. Bavaria, along with the other German states, joined the confederacy against the republic, and, in the course of the last war, suffered severely from the success which attended the French arms. The present duke of Bavaria resisted with all possible exertions, the proposals which were made for the dismemberment of his dominions, and even invited the empire, Russia, Prussia, and England to assist him in opposing by main force a cession so injurious. But the destiny of the empire was in the hands of Prussia and Austria, and he remonstrated in vain. By the treaty, which he was compelled to sign on the 24th of August 1801, he renounced in favour of the French government all claim to the dominions he before possessed on the left bank of the Rhine, and the French republic on its part, undertook to protect his remaining territory on the right bank, and, in the general arrangement, to procure proper indemnities for so heavy a loss.—Those indemnities have not been yet settled.

A. D. 1790, to 1800.

PALATINE ELECTORATE.

THIS principality was given to the elector Palatine by the treaty of Westphalia, and derives its name, from the office of elector palatine, which the emperor bestowed on those who, in his name administered justice in the empire. There were two, the jurisdiction of one extending over Franconia and the neighbouring provinces, the other in Saxony, and the countries subject to the Saxon law. Upon these offices are founded the vicariates of the empire exercised by the electors of Saxony and Bavaria, during an interregnum of the empire.

The counts Palatine of the Rhine had originally but little property in the empire, but by marriage, donations, &c. have now formed a very considerable principality.

Heidelberg, the principal city, is famous for its ancient academy and castle, the ordinary residence of the princes of the Simmeren branch, The valuable library was removed and presented by count Tilly to the pope, and is at present one of the greatest ornaments of the Vatican. Manheim is a strong well built city, as is Franckendal, formerly the best fortified in the palatinate. In the year 1576 it was appointed as the place of retreat to the families of the reformed religion, at that time driven from the Spanish Netherlands; and which considerably enriched this electorate.

The elector Palatine has considerably augmented his revenue by many impositions; particularly by the seizure of the ecclesiastical possessions, on his family's changing their religion, and also by claiming as their subjects, strangers who happen to possess any property within their territory.

The people of the Palatinate are the most civilized and polite of any in Germany; extremely open and hospitable to strangers, and generally well informed. They have been alternately Roman catholics, Lutherans and Calvinists, according to the religion of their different rulers.

The elector by the treaty of Westphalia, holds only the eighth in the electoral college, although the golden bull assigns him the fifth rank. He carries the emperor's crown at the coronation, and has also the title of Judge of the Emperor; which however has been long abandoned. He has a right to ennoble, and, by an ancient custom is the master of all those who are not born in lawful wedlock. He is director of the circles of the Upper and Lower Rhine, and, jointly with the king of Prussia, of the circles of Westphalia, and has also three voices in the College of Princes.

The ancestor of this family was Louis the Severe. His eldest son Rodolphus giving his vote for Frederic the third, in opposition to his own brother Louis, was compelled to fly into England where he died. His son and successor Adolphus was called the Simple, from ceding Lower Bavaria to the emperor Louis his uncle, and resigning the electorate to his brothers. His second son Robert founded the university of Heidelberg, and was succeeded by his nephew Robert the second, who joined to the electorate

A. D. 1313.

electorate the duchy of Deux-ponts and other dominions. Robert the Short and Debonaire succeeded his father and was elected emperor in 1400. Louis the third surnamed the Bearded, the Debonaire and the Blind, succeeded his father and was vicar of the empire during his absence. He was protector of the council of Constance, in the absence of the emperor Sigismund, who charged him to guard Pope John the twenty-second, after he had been deposed. He also powerfully assisted the Teutonic knights, sent troops to Anthony of Lorrain, Prince of Vaudemont, made a voyage to the Holy Land, and latterly became blind. His eldest son Louis the fourth, was called the Pious and Merciful. He was succeeded by his brother Frederic the Victorious, who enjoyed the dignity on condition of his remaining a batchelor, but his inclinations overcoming this unreasonable stipulation, he was succeeded by his nephew and pupil Philip, called the ingenious and posthumous, who was engaged in a destructive war with Albert the fourth, duke of Bavaria. His eldest son Louis enjoyed the electorate thirty-six years, and was succeeded by his son Robert the Virtuous, who being engaged in a dispute with the emperor, and falling into his hands, was poisoned with his wife and eldest son. Frederic the second, called the Wise, next enjoyed the electoral dignity to the prejudice of the children of his elder brother Robert. He established Lutheranism in his states, and joined the protestant league of Smalcald, for which he was reduced to the humiliating necessity of asking the emperor's pardon His nephew Frederic, son of Robert, was re-established by the emperor Maximilian the first, in that part of Bavaria which

which this family now possesses. He professed Lutheranism, and dying without issue, the succession fell to Frederic of the branch of Simmeren.

Frederic inherited from his grandfather, the lands of Simmeren and Deux-ponts. His eldest son John was succeeded by his grandson Frederic the third, called the Pious. He continued for some time to encourage Lutheranism, but afterwards became a zealous Calvinist, and for two years sent powerful assistance to the Huguenots of France, then in arms for the defence of their religion. Louis the Easy succeeded his father, expelled the Calvinists, and compelled his subjects to profess Lutheranism. He loved men of learning, and was fond of peace.

A. D. 1559.

Frederic the fourth, called the Sincere, was, during his minority, under the guardianship of his uncle John Casimir, who received the order of the garter from Elisabeth queen of England. He established Calvinism, and was succeeded by his eldest son Frederic the fifth, called the Patient and the Constant, elected king of Bohemia in 1619, put to the ban of the empire two years afterwards, and deprived of his states and electorate, which were given to Maximilian duke of Bavaria. His affairs being entirely ruined by the battle of Weisemburgh, this truly unfortunate and amiable prince fled into Holland, where he died, leaving by his wife Elisabeth, daughter of James the first, king of England, seven children, the youngest of whom, Sophia, married Ernest Augustus duke of Hanover, afterwards elector. Her destiny was singular. She was the daughter of

A. D. 1600.

of an exiled prince, brought up in adversity and privation, married to a German prince who had then no prospect of becoming the head of his house; called in the evening of life by a wonderful concurrence of circumstances to the English succession, from which her birth had apparently removed her to an incalculable distance; surviving that event thirteen years, and at last carried off by death at the very moment when she must have ascended the British throne. Though upwards of eighty, she felt none of the infirmities of age, and far from regarding with indifference the crown which awaited her, she anticipated its possession with anxiety. It would have been a singular spectacle to have beheld the grand daughter of James the first, quitting Hanover at more than fourscore years of age, embarking for her new dominions, and assuming the reigns of government at a time when other princes are usually incapacitated for the functions of royalty.

Charles Louis, eldest surviving son of Frederic
A D. 1700. was re-established in the Lower Palatinate, and created the eighth elector by the treaty of Westphalia, under the title of arch treasurer of the empire. His son Charles dying without issue, the electorate passed to Stephen, a branch of Neupergh and a descendant of the Rodolphus line. His eldest son Alexander was succeeded by Louis the second, who embraced Lutheranism and assisted Charles V. against France. His great grandson Woolfgang William, maintained a war of thirty years with the elector of Brandenburgh for the succession of Cleves, which ended in a division by his obtaining the duchies of Juliers and Bergue and the

lordship

lordship of Ravenstein: through the persuasion of his father-in-law William the fifth, duke of Bavaria, he turned catholic; and was succeeded by his only son Philip William, who endeavoured without success to be elected king of Poland. Previous to Leopold's marrying his daughter, Philip William was greatly attached to France, but from that alliance he became devoted to the emperor, and lived to see his country invaded and plundered by the French armies. His second son Charles Philip, quitted the benefices he enjoyed, and was made governor of the Tyrol.

The Palatine house had long asserted the right of succession to the electorate of Bavaria on the event of Maximilian Joseph's death, without children: they were the nearest in relationship, duke Louis the Severe, being the common ancestor of both. This pretension was, however, not only founded on the family compact, made in the year 1329 at Pavia, but confirmed also by other treaties concluded in the year 1766, 1767, and 1774. On the very day therefore of the elector's death at Munich, the Bavarian dominions were immediately taken possession of, the necessary instruments being previously prepared. A. D. 1750.

By the accession of the count Palatine to the electorate of Bavaria, the number of electoral princes was again reduced to eight, and both dominions having since continued in the same family, the history of the Palatinate is from this period interwoven with that of Bavaria. A. D. 1777.

ELECTORATE OF HANOVER.

ALTHOUGH this is the last family raised to the electoral dignity, yet for nobleness and antiquity it may vie with any in Germany. Its territories consist of the duchy of Calenberg, in which is Hanover; the duchy of Grubenhagen; the counties of Diepholt and Hoga; four bailliages, with the right of protection of the city of Hildesheim, and the county of Danneberg ceded by the duke of Wolfenbuttle as an equivalent for their pretensions upon the city of Brunswick; the county of Delmenhorst, and the duchies of Bremen and Verden, purchased from Denmark in 1715, the duchy of Saxe Lawenburg; and the right of alternately possessing the bishopric of Osnabruck.

Ernest Augustus, duke of Brunswick Hanover, received the dignity of an elector of the holy Roman empire on the 19th December, 1692, in consideration of the assistance he had given the emperor Leopold, against Louis XIV.; and, notwithstanding a violent opposition from the electoral college, and the college of princes, it was confirmed to him, and his heirs male, on the 30th January, 1708. The elector is also arch-treasurer of the empire.

The administration of the government is vested in a council of state, in a council of war, the court of justice, the chancery, the justice of the court, and a consistory; but for new laws or

taxes,

taxes, the consent of the states, composed of the nobility, clergy, and burghers, is necessary.

The house of Brunswick may be lineally deduced from Cajus Actius, a noble Roman of the city of Este, in Venetian Lombardy, who afterwards became prince of Este.

Otho the Second, surnamed the Infant, was created the first duke of Brunswick Luneberg by the emperor Frederic II., and was succeeded by his eldest son Albert the Great. After reigning seventeen years, he ceded Luneberg to his second brother John; and punished the house of Asseburg for treating his coat of arms with disrespect. A. D. 1239.

Albert the Gross, second son of Albert the Great, succeeded his brother William, and thus united the lines of Gottingen and Brunswick. Upon his death the territories were divided, when Brunswick fell to the share of Magnus the Pious. His son, Magnus II., succeeded. He entered into a compact with the house of Saxe Lawenburg, by which it was agreed, that upon the extinction of either house, the surviving family should succeed. Magnus finished his days in a miserable manner, being run through the body by a common soldier belonging to the count of Schaumberg, with whom he had a personal dispute. His son Frederic, after being elected emperor, was also murdered at the instigation of the archbishop of Mentz. A. D. 1265.

Frederic's two brothers, after ruling jointly for nine years, made a partition; by which, ultimately, Luneberg became the property of Bernard, and Brunswick of the other brother Henry. The military art being much improved by the late invention of fire-arms, besides the cannon of common

mon size Bernard caused one of very extraordinary dimensions to be cast at Brunswick, which was called *Faule mette.* This singular piece is still preserved in the arsenal of the city; it weighs nine tons, discharges a ball of about six hundred-weight, and requires fifty-two pounds of powder at each loading. His two sons, Otho and Frederic, succeeded him in turns.

A. D. 1450. Frederic, whose holy life procured him the surname of the Pious, made a journey to Rome; partly to arrange some disputes between the city of Luneberg and the clergy, and partly from devotion. Being taken prisoner by the archbishop of Munster, from which he was only released on the payment of a large sum, he, some years after, resolved to sequester himself from the world in a convent in Zelle, which he had founded: and accordingly resigned the government to his eldest son Bernard; who, with his son Otho, dying soon after, Frederic was obliged to quit his retirement, and resume the government, which he held for seven years. His successor, Henry, was only eleven years of age on his grandfather's death; and having assisted the bishop of Hildesheim in a war upon Eric I., of the Wolfenbuttle line, after the emperor Charles V. had commanded hostilities to cease, was put to the ban of the empire; to prevent the effects of which, he resigned his possessions to his sons, and retired to France: the ban was, however, repealed two years before his death.

A. D. 1521. Ernest, the second son, succeeded to the duchy of Luneberg; he was educated under the direction of his uncle Frederic the Wise, elector of Saxony, who sent him, at an early age, to the university of Wittemberg, where he

he not only made considerable acquirements in learning, but had an opportunity of conversing with Luther, who had then begun to discover his sentiments about the hierarchy and the doctrines of the see of Rome. From Wittemberg he went to Paris, where he cultivated the friendship of the polished Francis the First; and returned to his native country, the most accomplished prince of his day, at the time when the ban was proclaimed against his father.

The tenets of Luther had now begun to interest all Germany; and so far was the emperor Maximilian from being inclined to proceed against him, that he used to say, were the clergy to lead pious lives, there would be no necessity for Luther's reformation. His successor Charles V. was however of a different disposition; violent measures were pursued, and pope Leo X. excommunicated Luther, who was thereby driven to despair, the pope's infallibility not permitting him to retract. Ernest attended at the diet of Worms the following year, on occasion of Luther's being summoned, where he concerted a plan for introducing the Reformation into his own dominions. His prudence and moderation were on this occasion conspicuous; publicly declaring to his subjects that it was by no means his intention to force their consciences, but only to afford them an opportunity of determining according to their own judgment. Notwithstanding the opposition of the clergy, Ernest pursued the scheme he had formed of gradually abolishing the abuses of the church; he exerted himself on this occasion with uncommon application and constancy; and sent learned men to preach the gospel in the county of Hoya, East Friesland, and other parts of Germany. From this zeal, and the dangers to which

which he exposed himself, he acquired the title of Confessor.

The pope and his bigotted adherents, now fully sensible of the danger with which the reformation threatened them, insisted upon the ban of the empire, declared against Luther and all his party, being put in execution. The steadiness and resolution, however, with which Ernest and other princes protested against this measure, induced the emperor to use moderation for the present. In the following year the Protestant princes presented their confession of faith to the diet of Augsburgh; but, being unable to obtain free liberty of conscience, their common danger induced them to enter into an union at Smalkald, which subsisted for fifteen years, each party, during that time, keeping the other in suspense.

A. D. 1533. Insurrections of the peasants having broken out in several parts of Germany, who murdered their masters in the most barbarous manner, Ernest sent a body of troops against them, in which he was joined by other princes. The insurgents were at length subdued, though not till after 100,000 had been killed.

An insurrection of a more dangerous nature soon after threatened the subversion of all civil government, owing to a particular sect of Anabaptists, who attempted to settle in Upper Germany. Being alternately expelled from thence and Holland and Westphalia, they settled at Munter, which, after being the scene of a bloody tragedy for two years, was at length reduced by Ernest and the other Brunswick princes.

A. D. 1552. Ernest, after a life of unwearied application to promote the welfare of his subjects, died in his 48th year. He was a pious, steady,

steady, and valiant prince. Notwithstanding the cares and toils of government, much of his time was spent in study and inspecting the education of his children. He took great delight in seeing his subjects instructed in the Protestant religion, to accelerate which he ordered frequent visitations in the dioceses. He admitted into his presence, and patiently heard, such of his subjects as wished personally to lay their suits before him; acting up to the sense of his emblem, a burning candle, with this inscription—*Aliis inserviendo, meipsum consumo*: In serving others, I consume myself.

The sons of Ernest being under age at his death, the states of the principality of Zelle took upon themselves the administration of the regency. Francis Otho came to the government in 1555, but, dying four years after, he left his dominions to his two younger brothers, Henry and William, who governed jointly for ten years with great unanimity and friendship. Henry, desirous of living a quiet life, resigned his share of the government to his brother William, reserving only the counties of Danneberg and Luchow. William ordered the Protestant doctrines to be published in a body, ordering every clergyman at his ordination to swear to the contents. He died in 1572, much beloved by his subjects, and richly deserving the high encomiums which have been bestowed upon him for his knowledge and learning. Henry and William were the founders of the two new lines of Brunswick Wolfenbuttel and of Brunswick Luneberg.

A. D. 1555.

William left seven sons, who, being resolved to keep up the splendor of their house, agreed amongst themselves not to divide their paternal inheritance;

inheritance; determining that only one should marry, and that the eldest brother should have the sole regency over the Luneberg dominions, and be succeeded by the eldest survivor. To this uncommon agreement they adhered with singular exactness; which occasioned the grand-signor Achmet I. to express great surprise, saying, that it was worth a man's while to make a journey on purpose to be an eye-witness of such wonderful unanimity. Having drawn lots to determine which should marry, the happy lot fell on George, the sixth son, who thus secured the government to his posterity.

George, in his ninth year, was sent to the university of Jena, where he finished his studies, and learnt the art of war under prince Maurice of Nassau, at that time the able defender of the liberties of Holland against Spain. He travelled afterwards into France, England, and Italy; and upon his return assisted the king of Denmark, Christian the fourth, in the war against Charles the ninth, king of Sweden. During the war of thirty years between Gustavus Adolphus and the emperor, he first joined the latter; but, incensed at the seizure of Calenberg by the imperial generals, and convinced of the ambitious views of the emperor, he allied himself with the Swedes; and, during the siege of Wolfenbuttel, an end was put to his warlike exploits, being poisoned by a monk at a banquet at Hildesheim.

A. D. 1641. Ernest Augustus, George's youngest son and successor, was but twelve years old at his father's death. Discovering an early inclination to study, he was sent to the university of Marpurg, where he went through his studies with great reputation, and was complimented with the

the rectorship of the university. He travelled into England, Holland, France, Spain, and Italy; and afterwards succeeding to the bishopric of Osnaburg, he built the fine palace in that city. His court, like that of the elector of Mentz, was called Aula Laboriosa, from his great share in the public transactions of the time; and through his interference, the war between the bishop of Munster and the Dutch, and that prelate's differences with the house of Brunswick Wolfenbuttel, were terminated. He established the right of primogeniture in the house of Brunswick Luneburg, abolishing the pernicious custom which had hitherto prevailed, of dividing their dominions. He strenuously supported the emperor Leopold in the wars against Louis the fourteenth, for which services the house of Brunswick was declared worthy of the electoral dignity. — Ernest Augustus was an active, laborious prince, and assiduous in the administration of justice.

A. D. 1700.

His eldest son and successor George Louis was early initiated in the liberal arts, and in every science necessary for a prince. He attended his father and uncle with the army of the Moselle, and shared in all the dangers to which they exposed themselves in the battle and siege of Triers, and in consequence of his valour on that occasion received the thanks of the emperor Leopold. In order to arrange the marriage between his son and the princess Anne, second daughter of the duke of York, the prince came over to England, where he was received with the most flattering attention: his stay was, however, short; his father having arranged a match for him with his cousin-german, only daughter

daughter of the duke of Zelle, the issue of which was George the Second, king of Great Britain.

Prince George acquired immortal honour in the wars against the Turks in Hungary and on the Rhine, until the peace of Ryswick. The unfortunate circumstances attending his marriage must excite to this hour the most poignant regret. The court of Hanover was, at this period, one of the most splendid, gallant, and polished, of any in the north of Europe. The princess was a high-spirited woman, of strong passions, capable of the most violent resolutions, and not sufficiently circumspect in her conduct, whatever might be the purity of her intentions, in a situation where calumny might so easily find subject for attack. Among the strangers of rank who visited Hanover, was count Konigsmark; a man whose crimes, adventures, and tragical end, have rendered him too much known. He had been peculiarly acceptable to the princess of Hanover, before her marriage. Konigsmark, whatever personal or external graces he possessed, was unquestionably a dissolute, unprincipled, enterprizing, man of pleasure, capable of the greatest crimes in the pursuit or attainment of his views. The princess, during the absence of her husband with the army, was accustomed two or three times in a week to feign indisposition, and retire to her apartment: Konigsmark was then admitted, they supped, and usually remained together till two or three o'clock in the morning, when he retired by a private staircase. Interviews of such a nature certainly imply improper intimacy; but it has been satisfactorily proved that one, or more, of her ladies of honour, of the most unimpeached character, were always present. These interviews being communicated to the elector

tor Ernest Augustus, he peremptorily ordered Konigsmark to depart. The latter was, however, resolved once more to see the princess, and accordingly supped with her as usual. The elector, whose indignation was roused on being informed of this circumstance, ordered the soldier on guard to stop Konigsmark as he left the palace, and to force him, by menaces of immediate death, into a subterranean vault, which could be filled with water by a pipe. No sooner was he shut up, than the water was let in and drowned him. His body, on the ensuing morning, was put into a heated oven, and the mouth of it bricked up, as the most effectual means of concealing the transaction. The princess was conducted to the castle of Ahlden, where she remained for her life, in a sort of honorary confinement. The prince of Hanover was perfectly ignorant of this affair, being then with the army in Hungary. Upon the decease of his father, and again upon ascending the throne of England, he even made propositions for an oblivion of past animosities; but the princess rejected them with disdain. She always preserved a mind serene and dignified in the midst of her hard condition, and to the last protested her innocence.

The prince of Hanover, upon his father's death, employed himself entirely in the government of his dominions. On the death of the duke of Glocester, king William recommended to the parliament of England to regulate the succession of the crown; in consequence of which, by the act of settlement, the electress Sophia was declared next in succession after king William and the princess Anne, and in default of their issue. By the decease of his uncle the duke of Zelle,

Zelle, the elector re-united all the dominions of the house of Luneburgh. The princess Sophia did not live long to enjoy the crown destined for her, and which she anticipated with so much anxiety, although then upwards of eighty years of age. She had dined in public, and, invited by the beauty of the weather, walked out; suddenly, without any apparent cause or attack, she exclaimed, "It rains, it rains!" and running across the garden, sunk down, about two hundred yards from the palace, and in the space of a few minutes breathed her last without pang or effort. Her death was followed, a week afterwards, by that of queen Ann; upon which the elector ascended the throne of England, over which he reigned almost thirteen years. He died on his way to Hanover, of an indigestion, caused by some melons which he had eaten at supper. He was taken ill at Ipperburen, only eighteen miles from his brother's palace at Osnaburgh. No remonstrances or expostulations could prevail upon him to stop at the former place; and as long as he could make himself understood, he continued to repeat "Osnaburgh." His tongue began to swell, his senses to fail, and his articulation was gone. He breathed his last as the carriage mounted the high hill out of Ipperburen. All our historians erroneously assert that he expired at Osnaburgh.

Hanover, at present, strongly conveys the image of departed greatness; palaces without inhabitants, a capital without trade, and an electorate without a sovereign. It can only interest by the recollection of what it was.

The electoral dignity has ever since continued in the kings of England.

LINE OF BRUNSWICK WOLFEN-BUTTEL.

OF the three surviving sons of Ernest the Confessor, elector of Hanover, the two youngest, William and Henry, left issue. Henry was the ancestor of the present house of Brunswick Wolfenbuttel, as William was of that of Luneberg. Upon Henry's resignation of the government to his brother, he reserved only for himself the counties of Daneberg and Luchow with their dependencies.

Henry was succeeded by his youngest son Augustus, who, in addition to the above-mentioned counties, inherited the principality of Wolfenbuttel, with the lordship of Wurstrow. He established his residence at Hitzaker, where his love of learning induced him to collect a library of 80,000 volumes, and which at present amounts to above 116,000, besides 2000 select manuscripts. This valuable collection was removed to Wolfenbuttel, where it is open to all visitors. He was the author of several tracts, which remain as monuments of his labour, and erudition.

The duchy has remained in the same family to the present time.

END OF THE SEVENTEENTH VOLUME, OR THE EIGHTH OF THE MODERN PART.

T. Davison, White-friars.